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SOCIAL SUPPORT AND RELOCATION:
AN EXAMINATION OF THE WELL-BEING OF ARMY WIVES

by

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REFERENCE ONLY

A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Counseling Education
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas
1999

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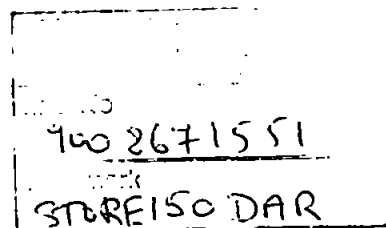
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ABSTRACT

Army wives throughout the United States participated in a study to evaluate the application of the triadic hypothesis of social support (Sarason, I. G., Sarason, & Pierce, 1992). The concept of social support consisted of the interaction among personality, interpersonal and situational factors with situation conceptualized as the event of relocation. The three factors were hypothesized to contribute independently to the prediction of well-being. Regression analyses revealed significant contribution from personality and interpersonal factors. Situational factors related to relocation added significantly to the predication of well-being in ways divergent from the original hypothesis. Specifically, months at current duty station did not contribute significantly to the model of social support while distance from home did add to the prediction of well-being beyond consideration of personality factors and interpersonal characteristics. Further research can discern more precisely what elements of the life events and daily hassles do significantly alter Army wives report of well-being.



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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

We live in a society in flux. Families are constantly in transition. People no longer live in the same town their whole lives. The "average American" makes 11.7 moves in a lifetime (Hansen, 1994). The days of knowing all the neighbors, shopping with the hometown grocer, and frequent family gatherings have largely been replaced by bedroom communities, 24-hour quick marts, and fast food on the fly.

Even without glamorizing the good old days, we can agree that those days are disappearing, and ponder what changes are occurring in the transition.

There are a multitude of cultural shifts that contribute to our transient society. In an interview revealing her opinions about the deleterious effects of culture, Mary Pipher (Simon, 1997) recognizes that the once taken-for-granted support of extended family and community has now evaporated. Such societal changes have resulted in families being isolated. One such change is the frequent occurrence of family relocation to meet the requirements of career improvement. Relocation puts strain on families and individuals in many ways, and that is particularly evident with the military.

As the military downsizes, active duty Army personnel have reduced from 770,000 in 1989 to 495,000 in 1997 (Institute of Land Warfare, 1997). The projection for active Army personnel for 1999 is 482,000 (Situation Report, 1999). A smaller military has many ripple effects on Army personnel and their families including frequent duty assignment relocation. In a recent survey of 41,000 military spouses, none reported their time at current location longer than two to three years (Defense Manpower Center, 1986). The 1988 Annual Survey of Army Families noted that 81% of Army spouses moved at least once within the past three years, and 23% have moved three or more times in that period (Research Triangle Institute, 1988).

Along with frequent relocation, a downsized Army has seen its mission load increase 300% since 1989 (Naylor, 1997). Army personnel and their families are feeling the pressures of a smaller Army with an increased training tempo and lengthy separations. This high optempo with frequent relocation and training-related separations is likely to even intensify as the Army continues to downsize in the face of developing rapidly deployable Strike Forces for future multi-functional operations (Army News Service, 1999).

With the frequent moves, Army families experience physical displacement as well as upheaval of personal belongings, friendships, careers, and schooling. Even without the additional stressors of possible deployment and separations, families are challenged to adapt. Dealing with this turmoil every two to three years pushes service members and family members to find and use resources to get re-established in the new duty location. For some, this transition may be an easy one. For others, making new friends, beginning new employment, finding trustworthy child care, settling children into a new school, getting to know the neighbors, and seeking new recreational outlets can be a daunting task.

Inherent in the frequent uprooting of Army families is the severing of old ties and the beginning of new ones. Having a network of supportive people available through challenging times may be difficult. It is also difficult to define what people consider supportive. The term social support can mean different things to different people.

One might think of a family member being available for child care while others may think of a friend to share everyday happenings. Social support could be a shoulder to cry on during crisis or monetary assistance when finances

are tight. The people to whom one turns for help may be family members, friends, neighbors, colleagues, or professionals. The effect of interacting with these folk may leave one feeling up or down; satisfied or dissatisfied. The situation which prompted the interaction may seem better or perhaps be even worse. Whatever the situation, whoever the supportive person, or however the problem is resolved, individuals have different experiences with the provision of support from family, friends and others.

Statement of the Problem

Social support systems are available to people in everyday interactions, and they can serve many functions in peoples' lives. Support can come in many forms such as sharing tasks and feelings, and exchanging information and affection (Vaux, 1988). Social support systems are commonly referred to as networks which suggests that assistance is available through many channels for many purposes. The ready availability of network resources can be very beneficial, and may prompt feelings of well-being and adjustment. Understanding how individuals interact with the broadness and complexities of such a support network can be useful knowledge for anyone in the field of

mental health. By focusing on what contributes to positive adjustment for military family members, mental health professionals can develop support interventions which may decrease the stress of relocation and deployment for Army spouses.

Social support networks provide a buffering effect from the influence of stress and negative life events on an individual's health (Litwak et al., 1989). Most researchers agree that social support refers to social transactions that are perceived by the recipient or intended by the provider to facilitate coping in everyday life and especially in response to stressful situations (Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason, 1990). Army family members who could benefit from the presence of such supportive transactions are often in the midst of re-establishing themselves in a community and possibly coping with a deployment.

Studying the interaction of the variables contributing to the feeling of being supported in a population of military spouses can contribute to the knowledge necessary to make productive interventions for improving social support. For as helpful as it may seem to simply provide services to make the social environment more supportive,

this task is not easily accomplished and may not be highly effective (Sarason, B. R., Sarason, Hacker & Basham, 1985).

Far more appealing is the approach to develop support interventions that empower people and promote an atmosphere of self-help. Assistance in the form of support interventions from mental health professionals can work with the natural resource of friends and family. There is "ecological validity" in such an approach because it is acceptable, accessible and culturally valid (Gottlieb, 1988).

When mental health practitioners better understand the link between social support and positive adjustment for military spouses, they can assist them in ways to ameliorate poor relationships or establish new social ties.

The beauty of focusing on social support is that mental health practitioners may initiate the process of people improving social support relationships; however, military family members ultimately benefit by gaining the skills necessary to help themselves. With a feeling of control over their environment, Army spouses could better cope with the upheaval of frequent moving and family separation.

A meta-analysis of formal psychological therapies shows that the average person receiving therapy is better

off than 80% of the controls (Wills, 1987). Given that number, it can behoove us, in the therapy profession, to consider what valuable skills a client could gain in therapeutic interventions. By exploring the variables involved in military spouses' perceptions of support, this research may increase the knowledge base about what gets people in touch with their natural network. This knowledge may provide guidance that therapists can use to encourage self-sustaining, helpful resources. It is possible that a broader understanding of social support could assist a therapist to maximize its benefit by providing information that allows for matching the intervention to the low levels of perceived support. Such an approach will be then theory and research driven and can promote the known elements that make social support supportive.

On a surface level, it may seem that assisting individuals and families to develop a support system would be the first step toward meeting the challenge of Army spouses' stressors. Get to know people, find out about resources available, and one is bound to be on the way to adjustment in a new setting. While this holds some merit in its provision of potential resources to the person meeting new challenges, it is limited in scope. An

emerging approach to conceptualizing social support calls for the abandonment of the concept of social support as simply a provision of resources from the social environment to an individual. I. G. Sarason, Sarason, and Pierce (1994) recommend that theories of social support incorporate the complexity of situational, personality, and interpersonal processes that shape individuals' perceptions of their social interactions with the significant people in their lives. Pursuit of this rationale broadens the scope of social support and allows us to evaluate what is effective for a person in a new situation to meet the challenges of change.

Research Questions

Social support is a dynamic and complex process. Using I. G. Sarason et. al's (1994) triadic hypothesis of situational, intrapersonal, and interpersonal processes to conceptualize Army spouses' support allows for a broad and rich understanding of how a person derives assistance from the surrounding social network. An investigation of the interplay among situational, intrapersonal, and interpersonal processes in social support can broaden the picture of what is helpful to people from their network resources.

Using this interactional framework with Army spouses exposed to stressors such as frequent relocation and lengthy separations can assist in developing productive intervention programs. It could be that all three factors (situational, intrapersonal, and interpersonal) contribute equally to the process of being well-adjusted. It could be that personality factors predicate a person's reactions to any situation despite the presence of positive interpersonal relationships. It could be that the strength of interpersonal ties assists any person to deal with any potentially stressful situation. Or it could be that the level of stress of the situation determines how people react no matter who they are or what type of interpersonal relationships they have.

Research involving the triadic model of social support has established the unique contributions of personality (Sarason, B. R., Shearin, Pierce, & Sarason, 1987; Sarason, I. G., Sarason, & Shearin, 1986) and quality of interpersonal relationships (Pierce et al., 1997) to positive adjustment. This study will use a hierarchical multiple regression model to confirm the contributions of personality characteristics and interpersonal relationships to well-being and then explore the added contribution of

situation. This research will address the following questions: Given the global and relationship specific reports of perceived support, how much does the situation of relocation contribute to Army wives' report of well-being? When an Army wife moves, is relocation considered a stressful event? What situational factors influence well-being after relocation? How much do an Army wife's personality characteristics, as measured by her reported sense of support, contribute to her well-being after relocation? How much does the quality of some close interpersonal relationships assist in positive well-being after relocation? The answers to these types of questions will contribute to a picture of the factors that weigh most heavily in a military spouse's perception of being supported and well-adjusted.

Hypotheses

This research will apply the theoretical viewpoint of I. G. Sarason, Sarason, and Pierce's (1992) triadic hypothesis which suggests that the impact of social support on coping and well-being is based on individual contributions of three variables: 1) situational - the type of situation at which supportive behaviors are directed, 2)

intrapersonal- the motivations and expectations of the providers and recipients of social support, and 3) interpersonal relationships - the nature of the relationship in which the supportive exchanges occur. The amalgam of these three factors assumes that social support is a complex process which contributes to a perception of being supported.

One hypothesis for this research tests the validity of the triadic model which states that there are three interrelated variables that influence the impact of social support on our lives.

HYPOTHESIS 1: The three factors of social support (situation, personality, and interpersonal relationships) each make unique contributions to the variance reported in the well-being of Army wives. Specifically the variable of Army wives' situation, as measured by length of time since last relocation, will add a unique contribution to the outcome of well-being that is not otherwise accounted for by personality or quality of relationships.

Another hypothesis for this research examines the stressfulness of the situation and its effect on the report of well-being of Army wives.

HYPOTHESIS 2: The influence of social support on the well-being of Army wives is based on the unique contributions of the three variables: situation, personality and interpersonal relationships. Specifically, levels of stressfulness of the situation of Army wives will influence the report of well-being in ways that vary according to measures of personality, quality of interpersonal relationships, and demographics.

Definitions

The intrapersonal context of social support in the triadic hypothesis is defined as the recipient's unique, stable pattern of perceiving self, important others, and the nature of personal relationships (Sarason, B. R., Pierce, & Sarason, 1990). The triadic model maintains that this personality dimension is the equivalent of a sense of acceptance. It is the result of a lifetime of everyday events that develop into a generalized sense of support. It is a highly cognitive, working model of self that reflects the perception of the sense of support.

The interpersonal aspect of social support is defined as the nature of the relationships in which the supportive exchanges occur. It is an evaluation of the quality of

specific relationships based on their levels of depth, support and conflict (Pierce, 1994).

Situational factors important to this research are measured as demographic information. The triadic model defines situational aspects of social support as the specifications of the situation in which support either occurs or does not occur. The situational context for which a supportive response is required includes simple or complex events as well as day-to-day experiences (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1994). The primary focus for analysis of situation as it relates to social support and well-being is defined as length of time at current duty assignment. Further information about the stresses involved with the occurrence of Army deployment, medical complications, the presence of support in daily activities, employment concerns, family events, and financial concerns has been gathered to form an adequate picture of Army wives' recent life events.

Well-being in this research is defined as a positive response to questions tapping psychological adjustment within the past month. Psychological well-being is a factor in mental health that incorporates general positive affect and emotional ties (Veit & Ware, 1983). The report

of well-being represents a person's experience of current happiness and positive anticipation of the future.

Limitations

The study of relocation and Army families has been narrowed in this research to an investigation of Army wives. This decision to survey Army wives as opposed to Army spouses is in no way intended to diminish the potential stressfulness of relocation that Army husbands may experience. It was established in order to focus on the larger respondent pool available with Army wives that attend the distribution meetings targeted in this research.

Also, the life events inventory, Relocation Stress Index, used in this study was derived from the Army Spouse Life Events Scale (Rosen, 1995) which includes one gender specific change; pregnancy. This delineation by gender obviously limits the applicability of the results of this study to Army wives and not necessarily Army spouses.

Review of Literature

Families in Isolation

Many current demographic trends challenge the development and availability of social support networks. Factors such as a high divorce rate, more single parents, more home workers and more temporary employment can all serve to increase an individual's isolation. Relocating is another significant factor that can potentially isolate families. Relocation has in many ways become a normative transition in our increasingly mobile society (Sluzki, 1992). Such societal shifts are likely to lower the amount of potential benefit from social support (Argyle, 1992). Leading an isolated life with fewer possible contacts to available social resources diminishes the possible gains from a social support network.

Social support refers to the various resources provided by one's interpersonal ties. Being in the presence of family, friends, workmates, neighbors, or acquaintances tends to be an ordinary experience that provides everyday contacts such as sharing tasks and feelings, or exchanging information and affection (Vaux, 1988). Perceived availability of support and a prevalence of positive events can protect one from the pathogenic effects of high levels of stress (Cohen & Hoberman, 1983). When interpersonal ties

have been disrupted with a significant change, such as relocation, individuals may find themselves alone to cope with life's challenges. This isolation can increase an individual's susceptibility to the deleterious effects of stress.

Frequent relocation poses challenges to all families. Porter and Rand (1992) call it a new American tradition with 20% of the population moving each year. They describe the turmoil, pain, stress and loss associated with relocation and warn that it is not uncommon for it to take two years to be at home in a new location. With a population such as the Army in which military personnel and their families change duty stations on average every two to three years (Croan, Levine, & Blankinship, 1992), it is easy to see how the process can be tumultuous. Just as a family begins to feel settled, along comes the moving van again. According to Hendershott (1995), psychologists have seen the influence that relocation has on families enough that they have developed a label - spouse mobility syndrome - to describe the experience of the spouse who trails the other spouse's employment.

Ramey and Cloud (1987) observe that the relocation process can lead to one of two possible outcomes. Relocation success characterizes the family who establishes a stable new life organization in the new community.

Relocation ambiguity, on the other hand, is characterized by only partial adaptation with reduced life satisfaction and adjustment at the new location. Either outcome involves a process of transition during which families and individuals implement strategies to develop new sources of support.

Some of the possible reasons for the deleterious psychological effects of a move include loss of support networks and valued persons. The price for moving may be depression, loss of identity and feelings of worthlessness (Hendershott, 1995). For many, the social network defines one's social niche and contributes substantially to one's recognition of personhood (Sluzki, 1992). This stressful and tumultuous transition requires that personal social networks are left behind and families begin the lengthy process of establishing a new network that may or may not fulfill interpersonal needs. The relocation jolts and transfigures the network of social support often resulting in overload and individual or interpersonal crisis.

Social Support Research

The topics of social support and social support networks are investigated in many different ways. There is a broad gamut of what is believed to be of primary importance. Some assessment criteria are network size, the function of support, the nature of the relationship with the support providers, the presence of supportive and

conflictual relationships, the match between support function and a person's needs, an individual's satisfaction with support, and the difference between perceived and available support.

Types of Support

There is a wide variety in the categorization of the types of social support. Jacobson (1986) proposes a tripartite classification which he derives from the consistent reports of support from previous literature and research. The three categories most frequently cited are: 1) emotional (or affective) support that involves behavior that fosters feelings of comfort and leads an individual to believe he or she is respected or loved; 2) informational (or cognitive) support that refers to information or knowledge that helps the individual understand the world; and 3) instrumental (or practical) support which is the provision of goods or services to help with practical problems.

Determining what types of support are most advantageous for what types of problems is broadened in research that examines how social support networks serve to provide tangible and emotional aid to individuals (Mitchell, 1989).

This research suggests that the presence of tangible and emotional support lowers some individuals' need for mental health care services. An evaluation of social supports of

counseling clients revealed that having a relatively large number of persons with whom to have fun and relax, and having a group willing to provide material aid were related to attendance at fewer therapy sessions.

Optimal Matching

Some studies of social support elaborate further on the relationship between types of support and types of stressors. Such an approach attempts to develop optimal matching models that balance types of support needed to best assist an individual to cope with particular stressors. The premise behind such an approach is that by discovering the optimal stress-support combinations, we may understand better both how adverse life events threaten and how social support protects or enhances well-being (Cutrona & Russell, 1990). After extensive review of previous research, Cutrona and Russell found, for example, that in order to predict positive outcome, the stress of uncontrollable events required relatively greater levels of emotional support while controllable events required relatively greater instrumental support.

This information about optimal matching of support to stressor can be useful in maximizing the benefit of social support-based interventions. In the case of Army families, we can see that the process of relocation is a relatively uncontrollable event because Army duty assignments dictate

where and when personnel move. Following Cutrona and Russell's (1990) guidance, Army families who have relocated may find great benefit in the provision of emotional support during and after the transition.

Buffering Effect

Some authors have acknowledged social support for its buffering effect, meaning that support networks provide an emotional bonding that helps to buffer the experience of stress and maintain an individual's health (Pilisuk, Boylan, & Acredolo, 1987). Cassell (1976) first introduced the concept of mobilizing social support rather than reducing exposure to stressors as an intervention for disease prevention.

Litwak et al. (1989) indicate that social support is beneficial to individuals in the reduction of mortality. This effect is achieved by the provision of instrumental help, information, advice and an emotional bonding that buffers stress and directly affects physiological functions such as blood pressure and the immune system. Other research with depression suggests that the perceived availability of different types of support such as emotional, informational and tangible can serve to buffer the impact of stressful life events on the course of depression outcomes (Sherbourne, Hays & Wells, 1995).

Stress-coping

Cohen and Wills (1985) focus on the perceived supportiveness of relationships. This stress-coping model posits that psychological distress and the impact of negative life events are lowered by the support provided by network members. Their study on social support and mental health examines the process by which social support serves to buffer or reduce the effects of stress by activating coping resources that counteract the adverse consequences of stressors. They conclude that people without social support are vulnerable to the effects of stressful events.

Further focus on the perception of support describes social support as social transactions that are perceived by the recipient or intended by the provider to facilitate coping in everyday life, and especially in response to stressful situations (Pierce et al., 1990). Turner (1992) reserves the term social support for perceived rather than experienced support. It is our perception of being loved, valued and esteemed that carries with it the certainty that we can count on others should the need arise.

Caring Environment

Still other research on social support proposes that support has a beneficial effect regardless of whether circumstances are stressful or not (Rosen & Moghadam, 1988, 1989b). Thoits (1986) describes the key ingredient to

successful support simply as empathic understanding. The condition of empathic understanding sets the stage for increased coping assistance. It appears that the benefit of social support operates through a process of being heard and feeling better about oneself despite the circumstances. In a study of adolescents, Robinson (1995) reports a strong positive relationship between perceptions of approval from others and self-worth. B. R. Sarason et al. (1987) maintain that the protective value of social support is in the feeling that we are loved and valued, and in the knowledge that our well-being is the concern of significant others.

Benefits of Social Support

Whether one uses a matching model, a buffering hypothesis, or a stress-coping theory to operationalize social support, it is intriguing to note that the presence of social support in an individual's life can have a positive outcome. Being involved in interactions that are viewed as supportive can produce benefits for an individual.

The approaches to determining benefits differ, however, the final analysis of most social support research concludes that the presence of social support in an individual's life has positive effects on adjustment.

Some research pairs the presence of social support with social and psychological functioning. Social competence, measured by self-report, experimenter rating, and knowledge

of socially skilled behavior, has been associated with higher levels of social support (Sarason, B. R. et al., 1985). Farrell and Barnes (1993) draw analogies between the cohesion dimension of family functioning and the degree of social support provided in a family. In a study of adolescents and their families, Farrell and Barnes find a strong linear relationship between social support in the family and optimal functioning as measured by psychological functioning, relationship quality and behavior. With this type of research, one sees a benefit of the presence of social support as it correlates to higher psychological functioning.

Other research investigates the relationship of social support systems and self-esteem suggesting that high self-esteem and high levels of satisfaction with support are positively correlated (Hobfoll, Nadler & Lieberman, 1986; Sarason, I. G., Levine, Basham, & Sarason, 1983). Self-esteem as it relates to social support is further explored by Sarason et al. (1991) in an investigation of the relationship of perceived social support and self-perception. The results suggest that individuals who rate their networks high also score high on feelings of competence and interpersonal success. Those who rate their perceived social support as low are accompanied by beliefs that they are inadequate and not socially acceptable.

Supportive relationships provide esteem or emotional support through instances of good empathic listening (Wills, 1987). Attentiveness and acceptance by network members show individuals they are understood and serve as a balance for the adverse influences of negative life events. Heller, Swindle and Dusenbury (1986) further examine the role of social support as esteem support during stressful as well as everyday experiences. In this way, they attempt to see how networks influence coping as well as how they interact with an individual's health. Their conclusions are that support enhances a person's feeling of being cared for, of being valued by others and that others are there for them if needed. With this line of inquiry, the authors suggest that the main effect of social support on well-being and as a stress buffering effect is to enhance individual self-esteem and make people feel better overall.

Further research explores social support in light of its therapeutic influence and its potential for promoting overall better health and mental health. Many studies have shown direct and indirect links between support behaviors and perceptions and emotional and physical health (Cohen & Will, 1985; Hobfoll & Stephens, 1990). Nieminen (1986) suggests that what occurs in an individual's support system may influence the amount they use mental health services. The implication seems to be that individuals with

satisfactory relationships in marriage, employment or positive social relations have access to support to assist them with life's circumstances or stresses. Sherbourne (1988) states that when defined as social resources, the more support people have the less likely they are to use mental health services. The stress-coping model (Cohen & Wills, 1985) suggests that a high level of informal social support is correlated to a low level of help-seeking from professional agencies.

Shifting the focus from professional sources of support to non-professional resources in the natural network reveals a multitude of support providing a variety of benefits. Wills (1987) reviewed many recent studies on the prevalence of help-seeking behaviors, and concluded that individuals turn to informal rather than formal sources of support on a ratio of 2 to 1. This suggests that people prefer self-help or reliance on social support over dependence on formal or professional organizations. Many people are able to garner what they need from their support networks to assist them through difficult times.

Various writings describe informal support as individuals from intimate and family relationships as well as people from the workplace, neighbors, and acquaintances.

Formal support is viewed as coming from professional agencies or mental health facilitators. Further

distinctions about whom individuals turn to for assistance with practical or emotional problems are revealed in the research by Tausig and Michello (1988). The authors indicate that people seek strong ties in social support systems such as family, friends and acquaintances over weak ties in their networks such as professionals and agencies whatever the problem may be. Litwak et al. (1989) further suggest that a primary group such as family, friends and neighbors is more commonly relied upon for support than formal organizations.

Army Families and Social Support

Army families are prone to lose many of the benefits of available social support with their frequent relocation. In a 1985 Department of Defense survey of 41,000 military spouses, overall 1/3 of families had been in their current location less than a year (Defense Manpower Data Center, 1986). In the same survey, wives of enlisted military members reported the average number of moves is six in 15 years while wives of officers reported the average number of moves is nine with 43% reporting 10 or more moves.

Geographical separation from the usual interpersonal networks can cause social disruption for Army families (Segal, 1986). While learning regional idiosyncrasies, families may experience strained communication with the "natives" and find it difficult to re-establish themselves

in a new community. General areas of stress involved with relocation include finances and housing, adapting to a new environment, and the impact on the spouse's career (Schumm, Bell, & Tran, 1994). In a Department of Defense survey, 1/3 to 1/2 of respondents reported they did not know whether family services such as chaplain services, recreation programs, family support centers or youth programs were available at their duty location (Defense Manpower Data Center, 1986).

While Army families are facing a variety of social, emotional and financial stress associated with frequent moves, they also face the stress of a high demand for readiness. In Fort Hood, Texas, for example, soldiers spent an average of five months away from their families in 1996 (Naylor, 1997). The focus on readiness places stress on families that can be exhibited in increases in domestic violence and substance abuse. It also stretches finances and decreases spouses' opportunities to pursue educational or career endeavors. All told, the challenges are great for Army spouses to become well-adjusted in their current duty location whether it be stateside or overseas.

Segal (1986) identifies the Army as a greedy institution that seeks exclusive and undivided loyalty. It is a work organization that dominates all environments for families (Orthner & Bowen, 1990). The pressures of

readiness requirements permeate family experiences. The Army, as an institution, attempts to reduce claims of competing roles and status positions on the service member it wishes to encompass in its boundaries. Some may recognize the adage that if the Army wanted you to have a wife, it would have issued you one. Despite this outdated guidance, ¾'s of the officers and almost 2/3's of the enlisted personnel are married (Defense Manpower Data Center, 1986). Given the greediness of the military institution along with the stress related to frequent separations, relocation and high demand for unit readiness, Army family members face a multitude of challenges to successful adaptation.

McCubbin and Lavee (1986) surveyed enlisted families adapting to the stressors of relocating to West Germany. These families used varying critical strengths depending on which family life cycle stage described them. Couples without children and empty nest couples benefited greatly from the military member's coping skills for managing life in a foreign country. A critical factor for adaptation for families with preschool and school-age children was the spouse's sense of being appreciated and valued by members of the family.

For adolescents, relocation had a different outcome. Young couples and families with adolescents benefited from

community and neighborhood support that made them feel they belonged in the community (McCubbin & Lavee, 1986). In other research with adolescents, Pittman and Bowen (1994) found that dissatisfaction with the rate of relocation is a substantial negative predictor of adjustment to external environment. The adolescents' perceptions of the relocation situation were a potent relocation variable for predicting adjustment. Like families in other life cycle stages, families with adolescents also benefited from the military member receiving emotional and esteem support from the family.

In this research by McCubbin and Lavee (1986), one might anticipate finding mention of the phenomenon spouse mobility syndrome (Hendershott, 1995). The possibility also exists that the terms relocation success or relocation ambiguity might be used (Ramey & Cloud, 1987) as it applies to the military. In general, however, relocation in the military is a given, an unquestionable part of life. The research surrounding the military tends to accept this given and primarily focuses on those coping strategies that lead to successful adaptation rather than question if successful adaptation is even possible.

Prompted by a mandate from the Army Chief of Staff in 1983, the U.S. Army Research Institute in conjunction with the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill undertook a

research effort to further understand the dynamics of Army families (Orthner & Bowen, 1990). With the long term objective of increasing operational readiness, a series of reports documented important facets of Army families that contribute to family adaptation. The thrust of the research was to identify strong and weak areas of the way Army families deal with military stressors in order to recommend programs to increase retention and subsequently improve overall Army quality of life.

Relocation is identified in the Army Family Research Program as a challenge to family adaptation. Families that moved recently, especially within the last year before the survey, experienced lower than normal levels of family adaptation. With numbers such as 27% of families experiencing slight problems with relocation and another 26% having serious problems (Croan et al., 1992), clearly the process deserves attention.

One early conclusion in this series of reports revealed that the level of community support is an important predictor of positive family adaptation when the family experiences a relocation. Families also adapted better to relocation when there was congruency between their expectations for their new duty assignment and their actual experience of the new location (Bowen, 1989).

The importance of congruency of expectations from the military is further examined in a study by Marchant and Medway (1987), they found the factor "identification with the military" to be an important predictor of well-being. They found no apparent detrimental effect from mobility on well-being for servicemembers, spouses, or children. While no buffers of the stress of relocation are identified in this study, suggestions that can be drawn revolve around the high adaptational abilities of military families.

Marchant and Medway (1987) call this phenomenon "chronic mobility" with the implication that frequent moves cause a sort of immunity to the stresses of being uprooted.

This research also suggests that the military system, when it works well, really does take care of its own. Putting this research in the perspective of stress-coping where the supportive network lowers the impact of the negative life events (Cohen & Wills, 1985), the military institution is the actual supportive network. When housing, relocation, affordable shopping, schooling, and other services are all readily available to Army families, the stress of all the disruptive events is diminished.

Orthner and Bowen (1990) identify additional demographic elements that contribute to family adaptation during relocation in their compilation of research for the Army Family Research Program. They report that factors

surrounding amount of experience with the military such as years of service, pay grade, age, and years of marriage and levels of family resources such as officer or enlisted and education level play an important part in predicting adaptation of families to military life.

Orthner and Bowen (1990) also highlight the presence of informal social support in the form of friends, neighbors, and work associates as one of the important factors predicting family adaptation to work organization demands. They report that inadequate social support has been shown to be associated with poor psychological family well-being as well as with indicators of poor family adaptation.

Both McCubbin and Lavee (1986) and Orthner and Bowen (1990) provide recommendations for programs to assist families to cope with military hardships such as relocation.

They suggest family-oriented policies that promote military members and spouses' sense of family-military fit. They believe that congruency between expectations from the military and actual experiences can be enhanced by support programs that facilitate close contact and cooperation between the unit and its families. Families do well if they have a sense of being valued and appreciated in the military and knowing the military will support them in time of need.

Bowen and Neenan (1990) find further support for these conclusions in a report that analyzed the responses of 2814

Army spouses from the 1985 Department of Defense survey. They found a significant positive relationship between satisfaction with the perceived organizational support for families and family problems and the overall level of satisfaction with the military as a way of life. This result adds further credence to the notion that positive adaptation to the challenges of military life can be enhanced by efforts to improve Army quality of life.

Schumm et al. (1994) summarizes a variety of findings to suggest three areas that can assist Army families in adapting to the hardships associated with relocation: there are things that families can do, things that the Army can do, and things which help but are not within anyone's control. Things over which families have control and can make adjustments include having a positive attitude, viewing relocation as a normal event, maintaining a present-time orientation, having a high level of personal confidence, and preparing for a move by becoming familiar with the new duty location.

The Army itself can alleviate some of the stress of relocation by providing as much advance notice as possible to families before their move. The possible stress of relocating can also be addressed by making a wide variety of information about the new duty location available to the transitioning family. This can be accomplished through

effective sponsorship programs or community information sources that increase a family's knowledge of their new surroundings.

Schumm et al. (1994) further identifies two areas as beyond anyone's control in the possible stressfulness of relocation. The age of the children in an Army family at the time of the move has differential effects on how difficult it is for families to relocate. Generally families with younger children surmount the hardships of relocation more easily than families with teenagers. The factor of spouse employment is another uncontrollable contributor to the stressfulness of relocation. Spouses frequently cite finding suitable employment as a difficulty in moving.

Schumm et al.'s (1994) summary provides an encouraging look at proactive efforts that both individuals and the Army as an institution can undertake to diminish the stressfulness of relocation. Scarville (1993) also examines factors associated with fewer relocation problems and recommends fewer moves, time off after relocation, and preparation for a move as proactive steps for alleviating stress. These types of structural adjustments to how the Army approaches the big picture of relocation and families can make a difference toward improving adjustment.

One institutional attempt to make concrete changes to the organizational structure of military units and support groups involves the Unit Manning System. Designed to minimize the disruption of relocation, the Unit Manning System keeps soldiers and leaders together for long periods of time to facilitate the development of bonds believed necessary to mediate the negative impact of combat stress (Rosen & Moghadam, 1989b). An added benefit to the design is the cohesion provided to family members who can retain supportive relationships. Rosen and Moghadam's findings suggest that while some consideration must be paid to differing ranks, generally stabilizing the social environment and promoting outreach to vulnerable groups can enhance support systems.

These previously mentioned research efforts (McCubbin & Lavee, 1986; Marchant & Medway, 1987; Orthener & Bowen, 1990) focus on support provided by military organizational and structural policies designed to improve adaptation to military hardship. Rosen and Moghadam complement the research done on public policy and social support with emphasis on private action. Their research (1988, 1989a, 1989b, 1990) which broadens inquiry into the Unit Manning System focuses on the provision of support by individuals to increase well-being among military spouses. Their research works with a similar premise behind most social support

research that when one is appreciated and understood, the perceived greediness of the Army may be easier to withstand.

Army Families and Challenges to Social Support

Beyond the institutional changes that the Army can enact to improve the relocation process for Army families, it is important to examine the subjective experiences of Army family members to see the personal adjustments individuals can make. In an analysis of the effects of stressors and stress mediators on the Army spouses during deployment, Rosen, Teitelbaum and Westhuis (1993) established a link from an Army family's experience of the unit's organizational climate to the reduction of stressful events during deployment and to the development of family support groups. These supportive experiences promote emotional well-being and lessen the effect of emotional stressors. What an Army unit does for its families makes a difference in how stress is perceived. Those units that provided a supportive climate during deployment received reports from family members that they had a reduced perception of emotional stress.

Rosen and Moghadam (1988) surveyed Army wives about their adaptation to the stressful event of their husbands' frequent time spent in the field. They found that peer support from other military wives, or more specifically

perceived instrumental support, buffers the impact of stress of the husbands' absence. In a later study to decipher the stress buffering effect of social support on the well-being of military wives, Rosen and Moghadam (1990) considered support available from other wives in the husband's unit, from family, from other wives outside the husband's unit, and from friends outside the military. They found that perceived support from other unit wives was the only support that emerged as a significant buffer against the stressor of a husband's absence.

Hildebrand (1986) recognizes some of the unique challenges to spouses of partners in high risk occupations.

She describes a resource program originally developed for fire-fighters' spouses from which the spouses report significant benefit from meetings designed to provide interaction, support and training. The program was based on collaboration, teamwork, consensus and mastery. With a focus on competency and personal effectiveness, spouses found they could hone their skills for maintaining their health and psychosocial well-being. This study adds additional support to the interaction between the presence of a supportive environment and the perception of being supported.

In a follow-up analysis of the same Army wives experiencing frequent separations from their husbands, Rosen

and Moghadam (1989a) examined the contributions of social environment to perceived social support. The results indicate a strong association between support and social group membership with the military wives who report high amounts of social support also reporting high levels of wives' group activity. These findings suggest that social factors that promote perceived support are those that give people greater opportunity for meeting and keeping potential support providers.

One such opportunity for social group membership evolves in the formation of family support groups which generally activate during an Army deployment. A description of the elements of a support group put together for an Engineer company deployed to Bosnia included a newsletter that provided familiarization with Army happenings and information about the deployed soldiers (Galvin, 1996). An added benefit to the group was that it helped build friendships and increase self-empowerment in the sense that spouses had concrete information as well as emotional support to get through a difficult separation. One wife described her experience of having others to rely on : "within the group you can call, you can cry, you can cheer" (p. 24). With information such as this, one can see that perceived support can provide opportunities for

increased supportive interaction that may leave an individual feeling more supported.

One model that may explain the experience of Army wives as it relates to relocation is the support deterioration model. In a review of many support models, Barrera (1986) examines the idea that life stress results in the deterioration of perceived support that, in turn, is related to increased psychological distress. His recommendation for intervention following this model is that if life events cannot be prevented, individuals might be protected from the deleterious impact on their perceptions of social support. In the case of the Army wives in Rosen and Moghadam's studies, the stressful life event of relocating or deployment cannot be avoided; however, the perception of how that stress affects them can be moderated by increased involvement in supportive activities such as wives' groups and outreach programs. Barrera calls them parallel efforts to prepare for the increased strain. This research study of Army wives and the perceived stressfulness of relocation may show what areas to target with those parallel efforts.

Triadic Hypothesis of Social Support:

An Interactional Viewpoint

Army wives are clearly a population within which social support has an important and fluctuating role. In some ways, the military, along with the challenges they face, are

a microcosm of society. In other ways, the stressors that face military spouses are unique and call for a unique variety of coping strategies. Research on social support that views it as a fixed entity, a lump sum of what you have for supportive interactions, ignores the innuendoes of varying situational stressors such as those that face Army wives. Viewing social support as a single concrete term also overlooks the complexity of the process that develops into a feeling of being supported. Social support is not a unitary concept, but rather an omnibus term. This anomaly drives the need for theory in order to reckon with the mechanisms by which social support affects health and adjustment (Sarason, I. G., Sarason & Pierce, 1990). Despite the accumulation of research describing social support and its benefits, very little research looks at the process through which supportive behaviors can be considered supportive (Thoits, 1986).

Cutrona and Russell (1990) recommend that social support research move away from measuring social support as a unidimensional construct that obscures the impact of different components of support. Barrera (1986) notes that the term social support is a heterogeneous concept, and recommends clarification and refinement of the global reference in favor of more specific terminology. Vaux (1988) argues that social support is best viewed as a

metaconstruct with several legitimate and distinguishable constructs. Vaux and Barrera's conceptualizations of social support incorporate three distinct elements which are quite similar: 1) subjective appraisals or perception of support; 2) support network resources and social embeddedness (the connection individuals have to significant others in their social environment); and 3) supportive behavior and enacted support (actions that others perform in rendering assistance).

A heterogeneous approach that considers a variety of factors gives a more complete picture than unitary concepts of how social support is helpful to individuals. This integrative picture allows researchers to focus on who the person is, how he or she gets along in the world and how that influences each person's life. An interactional framework emphasizes that social support is a product of many factors (Pierce et al., 1990), not a static phenomenon.

This framework involves both developmental and interactional perspectives (Newcomb, 1990) within which the specifics of the situation cannot be ignored (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1992).

I. G. Sarason et al.'s (1992) triadic hypothesis of social support develops a model that recognizes that the impact of social support is based on the interactions among three variables: personality aspects, interpersonal

characteristics, and situational factors. These three constructs incorporate those important theoretical distinctions that Vaux (1988) and Barrera (1986) stressed. Specifically, subjective interpretations of support are similar to personality characteristics, connections to others coincide with interpersonal relationships, and the atmosphere in which these occur correlates to situational factors. This type of portrayal of social support gives a very complete picture of what develops into the feeling of being supported. Each of these three contexts has an effect on supportive efforts from network members. With this model, it is possible to see that who we are, how we interact with others and what is going on all contribute to our reactions and abilities to cope with life's events.

G. Pierce (personal communication, December 4, 1998) states that the model was developed to account for processes underlying appraisals of supportive behavior. As such, the triadic model of social support presents a unique opportunity to view Army wives recently relocated to a new duty station who may find themselves somewhat alone in their community and initiating the process of developing a new support network. By looking at support as a process including personality dynamics, the quality of interpersonal relationships and situation, it may be possible to observe what contributions each component makes to well-being.

It is possible that an Army wife involved in a recent move may maintain the belief that supportive relationships remain with her no matter what the situation. It could be that, after a recent move, an Army wife may hope for or strive to develop supportive relationships despite the fact that no current support seems to exist (Pierce, Sarason, Sarason, 1991). A person with a high report of global perceived support seems to be something of a social optimist (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1994) maintaining the belief that the environment of supportive persons can generally be counted on to provide help and support when needed. By taking into account what type of person she is, how well she gets along with others, and how stressful her situation is, it may be possible to make predictions about her overall well-being.

Intrapersonal Characteristics

Personality aspects are perhaps the most complex and controversial of the elements included in the triadic hypothesis of social support. There are almost as many theories about how personality influences the impact of social support as there are theorists describing the process. One common thread is the notion that social support is a stable characteristic. While there is a preponderance of theoretical reasoning about how this support works, there is also research to substantiate it.

Newcomb (1990) collected two waves of data on teenage boys and girls and found social support to be not a constant or fixed trait-like condition, but stable in across-time correlation. I. G. Sarason et al. (1986) find that the relative number of supports on whom a person depends can be predicted reasonably well over a several year time span even when, at the time of the first assessment, the individual is involved in a major life transition. With an interactional viewpoint, I. G. Sarason et al. (1986) conclude that the stability of social support measures over time suggests that social support is an individual difference variable built on the environmental provisions. By focusing on the stability of social support, the argument for it being a personality trait rather than a simple provision of resources at a given time becomes clearer.

Viewing social support as a stable personality dimension suggests adherence to the belief that social support is a product of interactions that occur throughout a person's development. Social support is a resource that develops or evolves throughout life (Newcomb, 1990), a generalized perception that there are people available to provide assistance regardless of the nature of the specific situation (Pierce et al., 1990). Social support is a psychological sense of support (Gottlieb, 1987; Heller et al, 1986), or most emphatically a sense of acceptance

(Sarason, I. G., Pierce, & Sarason, 1990). It is a measure that reflects an individual's belief in the forthcomingness of the support network.

In order for there to be similar reports of social support over time, despite the circumstances, there must be stable, unique patterns of perceiving social relations that are based on working models of self, important others, and the nature of personal relationships (Pierce et al., 1990).

This sense of acceptance is an individual's cognitive working model that reflects a positive sense of support. Individuals' report of their sense of acceptance may be high or low, but that perceived sense of acceptance underlies the principle that people are confident others will meet their need for support should they need it.

One piece of research that elaborates this concept is I. G. Sarason and Sarason's (1986) study with experimentally provided support. In a laboratory study of college students performing problem-solving tasks, experimenters told students they would be available for assistance on the problems should they need it. No students requested help, however the students with low social support satisfaction scores who received the offer of assistance scored higher on the cognitive task than those who were not provided supportive reassurance. Those students who reported high sense of acceptance as measured by social support

satisfaction scores did not improve their performance. In this application, one can see that a high satisfaction with social support gave students a sense of support whether external support was available or not.

I. G. Sarason and Pierce et al. (1990) call this report of satisfaction with social support a sense of acceptance. In this study of college students, this high report of satisfaction with social support relates to a personality dimension as a sort of "toughing it out" despite the odds. Students who reported a low sense of acceptance, on the other hand, seemed to improve their coping abilities in the presence of a supportive environment.

In application to Army wives, this might show itself in how different types of personalities are influenced by the stressful situation of relocation. If an Army wife has just arrived at a new location, and she reports high sense of acceptance, it seems likely following I. G. Sarason et al.'s (1992) model that she will also report high well-being. She is an individual who believes in the forthcomingness of her support network despite the situation. If she reports low sense of acceptance, but also has the perception of external support being available, she may respond as in I. G. Sarason and Sarason's (1986) example as able to cope with the stressful situation and report positive well-being.

Clearly, social support as a fixed entity does not provide an adequate picture of the process of feeling supported or well-adjusted. Personality factors may provide the cornerstone for how the process works, but other elements are needed to explain the intricacies of what happens in the face of stressful events.

Perceived Support

Opinions differ about viewing social support as an actual action of supportive behavior or as an individual's perception of what support is available. Perceived support is characterized as the cognitive appraisal of being reliably connected to others while enacted support describes the provision of supportive behaviors. Very little evidence is found from self-report research or from behavioral observations to confirm a relationship between enacted and perceived support (Brand, Lakey & Berman, 1995). People can feel that they are supported even if the actions of supportive behavior belie that perception.

A review of current research on perceived and enacted support concludes that, unlike low perceived support, low enacted support is not consistently related to psychological disorder (Barrera, 1986). Perceived support acts more similarly to cognitive personality variables than enacted support as seen in its substantial association with high self-esteem and low dysfunctional attitudes (Lakey &

Cassady, 1990). It is a global measure that reflects the individual's multiple relationships and feelings of being cared about by others (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1994). Health outcomes are also best predicted by an individual's perceptions of the quality and availability of support, not structural features of social networks (Sarason, B. R. et al., 1987). Research that taps the subjective world of individuals provides a better understanding of the experience of supportive relationships (Vaux, 1988).

Measures of perceived support consistently show negative relationships to distress and often to measures of life stress and strain (Barrera, 1986). Turner and Marino (1994) review previous research to conclude that "studies continue to demonstrate that the most powerful correlation between indices that purport to assess social support and those that assess psychological distress are found with measures of perceived or experienced social support (p. 195)". Evidence is increasing that structural characteristics of social networks are only weakly associated both with the availability or adequacy of support and with health-related outcomes (Sarason, B. R., Sarason, & Pierce, 1990).

A debate is ongoing about the origin or source of perceived social support (Cohen, 1992). Following Cutrona and Russell's (1990) stress-deficit, optimal matching model,

one concludes that an individual reports a perception of support when the social environment has provided for a match between the resource and the stressor. Following I. G. Sarason et al.'s (1990) concept of sense of acceptance, the source of perceived social support is one's own personality, one's positive interpersonal schema. Sarason's triadic model can address both viewpoints. By assessing the personality dimension of the triadic model as a global sense of support, there is an allowance for measurement that conveys stable intrapersonal factors. By evaluating the dynamics of the situation of Army wives through report of their life events, one can see what resources and interactions are useful for dealing with the stressor of relocation.

In terms of what is important for health and mental health, believing that one is supported seems to outweigh the actual presence of supportive behaviors. Perceived social support is a subjective, personal appraisal of what support is available. It is not simply an isolated perception that can be measured when stressful events occur, but rather a constellation of cognitions that develop through a lifetime of social interactions (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1994). This study is enhanced by using the concept of perceived social support as the guideline for measuring the intrapersonal aspect of the triadic hypothesis because it allows a picture of subjective appraisals of support rather

than a mere tally sheet of what exists in an individual's network.

Interpersonal Characteristics

Drawing on the phenomenon that there are generally weak associations between network structure variables and perceived support, Thoits (1992) asks what are the origins of social support perceptions if not the social network? Her belief is that the interpersonal nature of interaction predicates the report of social support. Those who adhere to social support as a personality characteristic would explain that the number of supports available in any circumstance (network structure) are unimportant to a generalized sense of being supported. Those that believe the social network defines the interaction underscore the importance of the nature and quantity of the interpersonal relationships in social support. The triadic hypothesis incorporates both the personality dimension and the interpersonal nature of social networks to provide a more complete assessment of social support.

The interpersonal context of social support emphasizes the nature of the relationships in which supportive exchanges occur. It refers to the distinctive quantitative (i.e., network size) and qualitative (i.e., interpersonal conflict) aspects of both specific relationships and large social networks in which supportive behaviors and personal

coping efforts take place (Pierce et al., 1990; Sarason, I. G., Pierce et al., 1990). Some researchers stress the importance of exploring the relationship between the provider and the recipient of social support (Ryan & Solky, 1996) rather than simply evaluating network dimensions. Such an approach taps the qualities of the interpersonal relationships that enhance personal well-being.

The work of Pierce et al. (1990) and I. G. Sarason, Pierce et al. (1990) posits that expectations about specific relationships are not simply the building blocks for general perceptions of available support. There's more to it than simply you have a few people to count on (relationship-specific), and therefore you believe you are well supported (general). While people's general and relationship-specific expectations of social support may be related, they reflect different aspects of perceived support and they each play an important and unique role in personal adjustment.

In research on loneliness with college students, Pierce et al. (1991) concluded that the instruments investigating general and relationship specific dimensions of social support were tapping related but not identical constructs. He demonstrated an independent link between relationship-specific perceptions of support and loneliness, and surmises that global perceptions of available support and

relationship-specific perceptions of available support contribute separately to factors of personal adjustment.

This finding is elaborated with research assessing the quality of specific relationships of college students' mothers and fathers and its impact on depression (Pierce et al., 1997). The quality of family relations as measured by the Quality of Relations Inventory was found to predict depressive symptoms beyond measures of general perceived support. Research that has been conducted by Sarason and Pierce and colleagues thus supports the important and distinct contributions that both personality and interpersonal characteristics add to a variety of adjustment outcomes. What remains to be more thoroughly evaluated from the triadic hypothesis is the situational context.

One theoretical position that begins to extend analysis of social support into the interaction of interpersonal relationships with the situation investigates the qualities of supportive networks that reduce distress (Thoits, 1986). Thoits underscores perception of personal relationships as the key ingredient for determining the best source of social support in positive adjustment. She suggests that others who share similar perceptions of and emotional reactions to an individual's circumstances are the most likely sources of efficacious coping assistance. From this perspective, the dynamics of the situation are immaterial; what matters are

an individual's perceptions of the supportiveness of the social support network.

Put in application with military wives, Rosen and Moghadam (1988) also explore the qualities of relationships as the primary focus with the dynamics of the situation as almost an ancillary addition. In the presence of the stressor, lengthy separation from spouse, military wives who reported high levels of stress also reported high levels of support. Women who faced a stressful situation coped by turning to other military wives in their husband's unit.

The research by both Thoits (1986) and Rosen and Moghadam (1988) suggest that those individuals who can provide empathic understanding to the person experiencing distress may initiate a process of dealing with the situation. This may be accomplished by changing the situation or at least by adjusting the feelings about the situation. While the presence of supportive interpersonal relationships plays a role in the process of social support, it still remains unclear what role the dynamics of the situation play in the well-being of Army wives.

Situational Factors

While research such as Thoits (1986) and Rosen and Moghadam (1988) suggests there may be differences in situational contexts and how they influence individuals, there remains contradicting evidence surrounding the weights

that different situational factors carry into the process of social support and well-being. In a study focusing on the effects of personal and psychosocial factors on the clinical course of depression, Sherbourne et al. (1995) reported that stressful events had no impact on functioning on the course of depression outcomes. Her research found, rather, that patients who reported greater levels of social support were less likely to develop a new depressive episode and showed more decrease in depressive symptoms over time. This type of finding supports Sarason's contention that social support plays an important role in the well-being of individuals, but quite clearly disputes the role of situation.

Chamberlain and Zika's research (1992), on the other hand, did find significant influence of situation on well-being. In an investigation of the stability of subjective well-being over short time periods, they found that the current level of stressors as measured by current life hassles have a significant influence on current levels of well-being. Current hassles were considered to be everyday concerns around health, work, family, social activities, finances, practical considerations and environmental concerns. In light of this research, it would seem that I. G. Sarason et al.'s (1992) view of social support comprising of three interrelated factors (personality characteristics, interpersonal relationships and situational events) makes

logical sense, but requires further inquiry to substantiate the impact of situational factors.

One study based on the premise that one's current subjective well-being is a product of one's long term personality and recent events that modify one's experience of well-being seems to validate the personality and situational factors that the triadic hypothesis represent. Suh, Diener & Fujita (1996) chose the transitional period of college graduation as the situation for exploration and attempted to challenge previous research stating that life events, in comparison with personality, have a surprisingly small effect on well-being. They conclude that both personality and recent life events are significant predictors of current well-being. This research highlights the importance of the specificity needed to find significant results with the factor of situation.

It is important to consider that all stressful situations and the individuals who experience them are certainly not the same. There could be no global statement that says a certain type of situation presented to a certain type of person would always prompt the same reaction. The stressful event varies in what it demands of people, and thus the construct of situational factors is necessary in measuring the impact of social support on well-being. Trait or personality measures are only limited predictors of

reactions to stressful life events (Lakey & Edmundson, 1993). By moving from an aggregate score of the influence of many stressful life events on an individual to a more narrow score reporting a specific life event, research can more accurately link trait measures with life events and well-being.

Previous research using the triadic model examines the effect of situation as a predictor of perceived supportiveness of relationships (Pierce, Sarason, & Sarason, 1992). College students were asked to perform a speech task in a moderately or highly stressful condition during which they all received brief supportive notes at two occasions from their mothers. The results revealed an interaction of the presence of conflict in the relationship and the report of supportiveness of the note. They also revealed a difference in how students who felt supported by their mothers rated their mothers' notes according to when the notes were received. Pierce et al. conclude that certain types of support provided by certain people in certain conditions all make different impacts on how an individual perceives a stressful event.

This recommendation follows Cutrona and Russell's (1990) suggestion that urges new research to explore the differing dimensions of stressful events. Not all stressors are the same. Many life-event scales that pool respondents'

reactions into an aggregate score are not useful. Far more effective is to account for the impact of stressful events over time. Such an approach would allow us to distinguish what types of supportive efforts fit what types of stressful situations. In Pierce et al.'s (1992) research, for example, the mothers' supportive notes at the conclusion of the task rather than midway may have been more supportive because they matched the need. Perhaps positive feedback rather than an effort to bolster the student's self-confidence matched what the students needed at the time to feel less stressed by the speech task.

In the case of Army wives, applying this knowledge of the process of the triadic hypothesis of social support allows for a broad picture of stressful events and the ways in which supportive efforts interact with that stress. Although a variety of stressors are covered in the research of McCubbin & Lavee (1986) and Rosen & Moghadam (1989a, 1989b, 1990) with Army spouses, the specifics of the actual stressors remain vague. Situational factors are more complex than simply asking is your life stressful? Yes or no. At the core of the argument for including situation in the consideration of social support is the implicit understanding that situations are diverse and present unique challenges (Sarason, I. G., Pierce et al., 1990). It is important to see what is stressful about a situation because

it will require different types of support to alleviate the stress.

Optimal matching, such as this suggests, is beyond the scope of this research project. It is important to note, however, because it underscores the necessity to examine a variety of events and their perceived stressfulness. There are bound to be differing effects on well-being from these two factors. These idiosyncrasies will augment our understanding of the ways stress plays a role in Army wives' daily lives and may suggest what types of support interventions would be useful to alleviate the stress.

Well-being

Well-being research that links the situation of relocation with the outcome well-being comes from Showers and Ryff's (1996) study of older women. They put together personality dimensions with well-being in a study of older women who had relocated within the past year. They found that the way the women in the survey perceived the effect of their relocation on the domain of the self influenced how high they reported their well-being. Those women who experienced great improvement in one very important domain of the self (i. e. health, friendship, family, economics, or daily activities) during their relocation reported higher well-being in their year following transition than those

women who reported the same average improvement spread over all domains of the self.

The importance of this study in light of this research with Army wives and relocation is two-fold: 1) it shows a correlation from personality dimensions during transition such as relocation to well-being; and 2) it underlines the interrelated elements of perception of self with perception of stress. Neither the person alone nor the situation alone predicts the outcome of well-being, rather it is a complex interplay of a variety of factors.

One of Rosen and Moghadam's studies with military wives (1988) focused on effects of stress on well-being. For that study, stress was defined as length of husband's absence and stress was significantly related to well-being only for the group of women who did not report having support. In light of the stress buffering hypothesis, their finding supports the idea that, in the presence of stress, people who perceive themselves as supported also report fewer adverse effects of stress than those people who do not feel supported. In such cases, having support buffers the effects of stress on well-being.

Another piece of Rosen and Moghadam's (1990) research with Army wives and the buffering hypothesis also focused on the stressor of separation and defined it as the total number of days of the husband's absence. They found a very

low correlation between the stressor and general well-being, and suggest that there may be better ways to characterize the stressor. This agrees with both Cutrona and Russell (1990) and I. G. Sarason, Pierce et al. (1990) that specificity is a necessary component to evaluating stressfulness of a situation.

This present research effort with Army wives and the situation of relocation combines an objective and a subjective component to the evaluation of the perceived stress of the situation. This approach addresses the broad picture of how the complexities of the situation of relocation interact with the person experiencing the stress and with the outcome of well-being.

Rosen (1995) looked at stress and well-being of Army wives again after Operation Desert Storm. Life events typical of the Army spouse experience were identified as predictors of symptomatology. As the number of potentially stressful life events experienced by the military spouse increased, the report of symptoms on a depression and anxiety scale also increased. Emotional stressors of deployment characterized by concerns about spouse's safety were significant predictors of symptoms in other military spouses studied concerning the impact of Operation Desert Storm (Rosen, Teitelbaum, & Westhuis, 1993). Clearly what

goes on in the life of military spouses has an influence on their well-being.

Army wives face a myriad of stressors. With the recognized need to be highly specific about the definition of the stressful event (Rosen & Moghadam, 1990), previous research has revealed certain factors that benefit Army wives in the face of stress. With the knowledge that Army wives who report low levels of support are also more likely to report low well-being (Rosen & Moghadam, 1988), researchers have been able to identify informal social support in the shape of a supportive unit climate that includes peer support and possible wives group activity as helpful for dealing with the stressors of Army life (Orthner & Bowen, 1990; Rosen, 1989a; Rosen, et al., 1993). Relocation is just one of the stressors that Army families face and it deals so specifically with alterations in social support that it merits individual attention.

In order to look at the innuendoes of feeling adjusted or settled after a move, this research has chosen the triadic hypothesis of social support (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1992) to examine what happens for Army wives in the process of relocating. This theoretical viewpoint allows for observations of what occurs in terms of the personality of the Army wife who moved, the quality of her interpersonal relationships, and the specifics of the actual situation in

terms of how it fits with other life events. All of these factors would seem logically to contribute some part to the feeling of well-being after relocating.

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CHAPTER 3

Method

Sample

Surveys were distributed through the mail to points of contact at 8 military facilities throughout the United States. Sites included Fort Hood, TX, Fort Benning, GA, Fort Knox, KY, Fort Munroe, VA, Fort Leavenworth, KS, Naval Training Center, RI, Fort Riley, KS, and the Pentagon. Points of contact administered 275 surveys to subjects in one of two situations; Army Community Service (ACS) sponsored events such as Army Family Team Building (AFTB) meetings, or at monthly coffees of battalion and company level spouses.

The anticipated attendance to ACS functions and to battalion coffees that this survey could reach was primarily Army officer's wives with a smaller attendance from Army enlisted wives and a minimal attendance of civilian male Army spouses. To prevent data collection from a group too small for meaningful analysis, points of contact were instructed to distribute packets only to Army wives. There were 131 responses (93 officers' wives and 36 enlisted wives) for a 48% return rate.

Data Collection Procedures

Surveys were mailed to points of contact at sites mentioned in Sample. Survey packets were coded to allow for

site by site analyses. A detailed instruction sheet (see Appendix A) described the process of testing that was required from each site. After survey distribution and collection, contact people returned surveys by mail to this study administrator.

Subjects agreeing to participate in this survey read and detached the Informed Consent Statement (see Appendix B) for their own records. Subjects signed and returned the Informed Consent Agreement (See Appendix C) with their completed surveys. Survey packets included measurements of situational context (Relocation Stress Index), intrapersonal context (Social Support Questionnaire - Short Form), interpersonal context of social support (Quality of Relationships Inventory) and a well-being instrument (Mental Health Inventory) as described below in Measurement. These survey instruments appeared as listed in all survey packets because the nature of the questions follow a logical progression in this order. Upon completion of survey material, subjects detached Informed Consent Agreement from surveys to further protect their privacy. Two envelopes were provided for points of contact to return previously separated Informed Consent Agreement and survey questionnaires to study administrator.

Measurement

Situational context. The Relocation Stress Index (RSI; see Appendix D) was the instrument used to gather information on the situational context of military wives. The RSI was tailored from the Army Spouse Life Events Scale (ASLES) that Rosen (1995) developed to study Army spouse adjustment after Operation Desert Storm. It was altered for this study to tap the situational stress of everyday life events of Army spouses. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .61. The RSI contained demographic questions and a list of 21 potentially stressful life events. Participants were asked to indicate which, if any, of the life events occurred in their lives in the past year, and to indicate how stressful that seemed to them on a scale ranging from 1 = Not at all stressful, to 4 = Extremely stressful. The scale of subjective appraisal of the perceived stressfulness of these events has been added to address the inadequacy Rosen and Moghadam (1990) expressed regarding the methods of characterizing stressors.

Demographic variables requested in this survey included the respondent's age, husband's rank, number of years married, and number and age of children. These factors were requested to assemble a general picture of the nature of the population surveyed. Turner and Marino (1994) report a significant impact of social structure as measured by

socioeconomic status and gender on the processes of social support. Army spouse's rank has been found to be predictive of perceived support, report of available levels of support, and has been identified as a factor in level of participation in wives group activities (Rosen & Moghadam, 1988; Rosen & Moghadam, 1989a; Rosen & Moghadam, 1989b). Life cycle stage has also been identified as a significant contributor to Army stress adaptation (McCubbin & Lavee, 1986).

Relocation items included two demographic questions; "How long have you been at the current duty station?", and "How many total moves have you made related to your husband's Army career?", and two statements from the life events checklist; "You had a Permanent Change of Station (PCS) move," and "You changed residence without a PCS move this year." One other relocation question asked respondents to indicate how far they were stationed from the place they call home. This information was gathered as a possible buffering factor for the effect of stress on well-being.

The primary independent variable indicating the stress of relocation on military wives was operationalized as the number of months at the current duty station. This independent variable was entered fourth into the hierarchical equation evaluating the contribution of situation to the variance in well-being. Entry order for

the multiple regression analysis was demographic variables, personality characteristics, quality of interpersonal relationships, and then situational factors. The decision for this order followed the research behind I. G. Sarason et al.'s (1992) triadic model which has previously established the contributions of personality and interpersonal characteristics to adjustment (Pierce et al., 1991, 1992, 1997).

Two additional items were tested for significance in the process of relocation. First, the total number of moves made related to husband's Army career and its interaction with perceived stressfulness of a move within the past year were entered together to establish their contribution to the variance in well-being. It would seem that as the total number of moves over a couple's Army career increased, the perceived stressfulness of a recent move would decrease and well-being would remain stable (Marchant & Medway, 1987).

The second item tested for its contribution to the variance in well-being was distance from home. Logic suggests that as distance to home was closer, a person would find more potential support available from family or friends that could influence the report of well-being.

The life events checklist also contains questions pertaining to the occurrence of separation events (3), medical events (3), changes of support (5), employment (3),

family events (4), and financial events(2). These remaining questions from the situational checklist that were not factored into the relocation stress analysis were used in the following manner: total number of events that occurred in each category and total perceived stressfulness were tested for their contribution to the variance in well-being. It would seem that as the number of stressful events that occurred increased and perceived stressfulness increased, well-being ratings will be adversely effected.

Intrapersonal context. The instrument chosen to measure the intrapersonal context of social support in this research is the Social Support Questionnaire - Short Form (SSQ-S; Sarason, I. G., Sarason, Shearin, & Pierce, 1987; see Appendix E) that taps the subjective appraisal that individuals have of their support networks. It is a brief, easy to administer, self-report questionnaire that corresponds with the definition of social support as a stable personality dimension developed through life's experiences.

The SSQ-S was developed from the 27-item Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ, Sarason, I. G. et al., 1983) and is considered an acceptable substitute for the SSQ when time of administration is a consideration. In keeping with the intrapersonal context of the triadic hypothesis, the SSQ-S looks at individuals' perceptions of what constitutes a

support network and how satisfied individuals are with that construct. The SSQ-S asks subjects to list up to nine individuals to whom subjects feel they could turn for support (SSQ-S Number scale) in each of six different situations and to rate their satisfaction (SSQ-S Satisfaction scale) with available support for each of the six situations on a 6-point scale, ranging from 6 = Very satisfied, to 1 = Very dissatisfied.

The SSQ-S places emphasis on the perception of being loved and cared for which is a central component to the sense of acceptance that defines the intrapersonal context of social support. Research done with the SSQ (Sarason I. G. et al., 1986) reveals the stability of the Number scale and the Satisfaction scale over time. In attempting to establish social support as a stable personality characteristic, Sarason et al. (1986) show that the Satisfaction scale shows more fluctuation than the Number scale, however these measures are still more stable than other state oriented affective measures.

An extensive program of research using the SSQ and SSQ-S supports the construct validity of the SSQ Number scale as a measure of perceived availability of social support (Sarason, B. R. et al., 1987; Sarason, I. G. et al., 1987). High Number scores consistently relate to other prominent perceived available support measures and show strong,

consistent relations to a variety of dependent variables such as loneliness, depression and anxiety (Sarason, B. R. et al., 1987). In addition, if an individual rates his or her level of perceived support as high with a high Satisfaction score, an interpretation of this rating would be that the person feels accepted and confident that the support system would be available in times of stress. Internal reliability for the SSQ-S ranged from .90 to .93 for both Number and Satisfaction scores with a college student population (Sarason, I. G. et al, 1987).

For this research, Number scores were used as the measurement of personality factors as an indication of global perception of available support. The stability of the Number score over time is a desirable element for this population of Army wives who experience so much transition. Satisfaction scores were used in analyses involving personality factors as an indication of satisfaction with available support.

Interpersonal context. The Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI) was chosen as the measurement of interpersonal factors in the triadic hypothesis because it draws attention to the nature of the relationships in which supportive exchanges occur. The QRI was developed to assess relationship-specific perceptions of support (Pierce, 1994). By focusing on the expectations participants have regarding

specific relationships, the QRI explores supportive relationships as a source of support, conflict and depth. Internal consistency of the three scales was high (Cronbach's alpha in the .80s and .90s) in a study conducted with college students about a broad range of close relationships (Pierce et al., 1991). Convergent and discriminant validity analyses support the measurement of relationship-specific perceptions of support as a contributing yet distinct variable in the measurement of social support.

The QRI contains 25 items that tap respondents' perceptions of a specific relationship. With questions such as "To what extent can you turn to this person for advice about problems?," respondents rate a specific relationship on a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 = Not at all, to 4 = Very much. The QRI provides scales that are applicable to a broad range of relationships (i.e. peers, family members, coworkers, romantic partner/spouse), and takes approximately 4 minutes to complete. For this research, respondents will be asked to complete the QRI as it applies to the nature of the relationship of the participant with two people previously identified in the SSQ-S. This will provide an adequate sampling of the nature of specific supportive relationships that Army spouses find available and useful.

The QRI is characterized as a stable conception of relationships based on participants' general working models regarding the nature of supportive relationships. The support dimension (7 items) reveals the extent to which the individual can rely on the other person for assistance in a variety of situations. The conflict scale (12 items) measures the extent to which the individual experiences angry, ambivalent feelings regarding the other person. In effect, even supportive relationships are not free from conflict. The depth scale (6 items) reveals the perceived importance of the relationship - the extent to which the individual is committed to the relationship and positively values it.

For the purposes of this study, when the interpersonal score was entered into the hierarchical equation it was computed as a total score of Person A and B on the support scale. Following the logic of the triadic hypothesis, as an individual reports higher quality supportive relationships, the score of well-being will increase. A more in depth analysis of the nature of the relationships reported by Army wives was also tested with correlational analyses of Person A and B on the dimensions of support, conflict, and depth as they relate to the major variables of the study.

Well-being. The well-being of Army wives was measured by the Mental Health Inventory (MHI; Davies, Sherbourne, Peterson, & Ware, 1988; see Appendix G). The overall reliability for the MHI is .96 as reported in a large combined general sample gathered during the inventory's development in RAND's Health Insurance Experiment (Veit & Ware, 1983). Research completed during the development of the MHI supports the premise behind the instrument that mental health consists of two constructs - psychological distress (negative mental health states) and psychological well-being (positive mental health states). The MHI, a 38-item self-report inventory, yields a global summary score (Mental Health Index) and two subscale scores: Psychological Distress (PD) and Psychological Well-Being (PWB). The internal consistency scores for the subscales is .94 and .92 respectively (Veit & Ware, 1983).

While the inventory's authors substantiate the MHI as a sound instrument for assessing overall mental health, they also recognize the clearly distinct, separate factors that the MHI measure. Tanaka and Huba (1984) further confirm that the MHI does contain separable factors. RAND's instructions for use of the MHI indicate that changes may be made to the Health Survey. As such, the MHI will be used in this research by utilizing only the PWB subscale. The subscale's strong reliability rating (.92) and clearly

distinct measurement of a component of mental health support this decision.

The PWB subscale of the MHI contains 14 self-report items that ask respondents to indicate how often, during the past month, they have experienced certain positive feelings (i. e. that the future looks hopeful and promising, that they have felt loved and wanted, that they expected to have an interesting day). Most questions have a 6-point scale ranging from 1 = All the time, to 6 = None of the time. Three questions have slightly different responses that are in the same vein. Coding rules for the MHI (Davies, Sherbourne, Peterson, & Ware, 1988) require that all response values for the 14 items are recoded so that high scores indicate more of the construct named by the scale. The items were then summed to provide raw scale scores which is the format in which the PWB subscale was used as the dependent variable in the hierarchical equation.

Results

Description of the Sample

The average age of the respondents of this survey was 34, and 53% of them have made six or more moves related to their husband's Army career. They have been married an average of 11 years, and 43% of the sample have children from birth to six, while 51% have children ages 7 to 17, and only 6% have children 18 and older.

The majority of the Army wives surveyed live more than one day's travel from home (67%) with 24% living within an 8 hour drive and only 8% living within a 1 hour drive from the place they call home. The length of time at current duty station ranged from 1 month to 4 years with 52% having less than one year at their current assignment. The average length of time at current duty station was 18 months.

Army Wives and Life Events

Responses to the RSI revealed some of the dynamics of the life events that occurred in the past year for the Army wives in this study (see Table 1). Sixty-five percent of the wives surveyed experienced a relocation within the past year. Only 3% found it not at all stressful with a total of 79% reporting it mildly stressful and stressful.

Table 1
Occurrence of Life Events for Army Wives for One Year.

Life events	Number of participants reporting	% of total	Number of events reported	% of responses/ stressfulness
Relocation (Questions 1,2)	85	65	91	1=3 2=40 3=39 4=19
Separation (Questions 3,4,5)	68	52	114	1=3 2=32 3=47 4=18
Medical (Questions 6,7,8)	61	47	75	1=19 2=21 3=32 4=28
Support changes (Questions 9,10,11,12)	90	69	129	1=7 2=33 3=40 4=19
Family support groups (Question 13)	61	47	61	1=54 2=36 3=5 4=5
Employment (Questions 14,15,16)	74	57	119	1=19 2=39 3=27 4=13
Family (Questions 17,18,19,20)	102	78	156	1=32 2=49 3=29 4=19
Financial (Questions 21,22)	34	26	46	1=7 2=28 3=41 4=24

Note. 1 = not at all stressful, 2 = mildly stressful, 3 = stressful, 4 = extremely stressful. Source: Relocation Stress Index.

Inherent in the process of relocation is the loss or severing of close ties. In the area of support changes, 69% of respondents reported some change in their support network (i. e. loss of supportive person or addition of family member). Of the 90 support change events that were reported, 77 (86%) were responses to the statement that a close friend moved or you moved away from a close friend (question 10). Over half (59%) of the wives surveyed rated support changes as stressful or extremely stressful.

In consideration of the relocation events and the changes in support dynamics, this sample of Army wives revealed a substantial amount of transition in the life events they experienced during the past year. The focus on the dynamics social support has merit for a group such as this that experiences so much frequent change in their network.

Some other interesting remarks about individual questions of the RSI elaborate the results in Table 1. Previous research has been mixed when investigating employment as an additional stressor for Army spouses with their frequent relocation (Bowen, 1989). Of the 40% of the wives who said they have a job (question 15), 74% ranked the stressfulness of that job as not at all stressful or mildly stressful. Family Support Groups (FSG; question 13) appeared to be a positive addition to Army wives' coping

resources, with 90% of those who said they had regularly attended FSG's rating the stressfulness of that event as not at all stressful or mildly stressful.

The mean scores of the sub-scales of the RSI were analyzed for differences using t-tests. Only two significant differences in mean scores emerged: stressfulness of relocation events with stressfulness of family events (\bar{M} relocation = 2.90 vs. \bar{M} family = 2.87; $t(67) = -0.13$, $p < .05$), and stressfulness of medical events with separation events (\bar{M} medical = 3.39 vs. \bar{M} separation = 4.22; $t(36) = -1.91$, $p < .05$).

A common thread for possibly explaining the difference in the stressfulness of relocation and family events is a family vacation (question 19) that often occurs during relocation. High perceived stressfulness of relocation might have been countered by low perceived stressfulness of this family event which resulted in significantly different mean scores.

A substantially different report of the stressfulness of medical and separation events is based on only 36 pairs, and could possibly be explained as the difference between a chronic and an acute stressor. Army separations for reasons of deployment or otherwise are common to many Army families. "Army responsibilities have caused long separations" (question 5) in the separation events sub-scale accounts for

60% of the separation events with 54 respondents indicating that event occurred in the past year. For many Army families, lengthy separations are a chronic condition that permeate a husband's Army career.

On the other hand, two of the three medical events explored (pregnancy and illness) can be seen as abrupt and relatively short-lived. These dynamics characterize medical events as possible acute stressors. Perhaps these distinctions between the types of stress reported with separation and medical events influence a difference in reporting the stressfulness of those events. This may account for the significant difference in the means of those two scales.

Otherwise the lack of difference among the sub-scales is also worth mention. There is no significant difference (except for those mentioned) between the report of stressfulness of typically Army related events such as relocation or separation and events not exclusively Army related such as medical, financial and employment. This finding suggests that the Army wife population for this sample may be quite similar to any other civilian wife population. The stressful life events that she faces are not necessarily different just because she leads a transitory lifestyle.

In order to determine the similarity of the officers and enlisted wives, their scores on the following measures were compared by husband's rank using t-tests: well-being, number of stressful events experienced, attendance at family support groups, available levels of social support, and interpersonal characteristics. There were no significant differences on these measures by husband's rank. This countered some previous research (Rosen 1988, 1989a, 1989b) indicating that there was a difference on some of these measures according to husband's rank. One explanation of this occurrence could be that the groups from which these responses were drawn became more similar by their active participation in battalion and company coffees and ACS functions.

Further effort to distinguish differences among possible subgroups revealed no significant differences. Analyses of variance by length of time at current duty station with well-being, stressful events, stressfulness of events, personality, and interpersonal characteristics did not produce significant results. This finding in conjunction with the lack of difference between Army and non-Army related stressful events was an early indication that the hypothesis for this study involving the situation may not hold true. When conceptualized as the length of time at current duty station, situation as an independent

variable, may not make a significant contribution to well-being.

Personality and Interpersonal Qualities of Army Wives

The correlation of personality measures and interpersonal characteristics (see Table 2) were consistent with logic and previous research (Pierce et al., 1991, 1997; I. G. Sarason et al., 1987). The sense of support the respondents experienced (SSQ-S Number) correlated to their satisfaction with their support network (SSQ-S Satisfaction) $r = .34, p < .001$. Higher levels of a sense of support were associated with higher satisfaction of the support network.

Support and depth measures of the Quality of Relationships Inventory (QRI) were also positively correlated for person A ($r = .64, p < .001$) and person B ($r = .73, p < .001$). Support and conflict measures were expected to show a negative correlation, however, for person A there was no correlation on these measures and for person B support and conflict measures were positively related ($r = .37, p < .001$). While this contradicts Pierce et al.'s (1997) research, it may reveal a dynamic of the people to whom Army wives can turn for support. Elements of support and conflict in a relationship would generally tend to be inversely related, but perhaps the amount of transition and stress involved in Army daily lives changes some qualities of interpersonal relationships.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation of Major Variables.

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. A Support	--	.64***	.00	.26**	.17*	-.02	.24**	.38***	-.10	.42***
2. A Depth	--	--	.00	.16*	.11	-.07	.04	.35***	.02	.19*
3. A Conflict	--	--	--	.03	-.03	.13	-.19*	-.28***	.18*	-.12
4. B Support	--	--	--	--	.73***	.37***	.31***	.27***	-.16*	.18*
5. B Depth	--	--	--	--	--	.43***	.27***	.16*	-.08	.06
6. B Conflict	--	--	--	--	--	--	.04	-.13	.20*	-.17* 8
7. SSQ-S Number	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.34***	-.20**	.31***
8. SSQ-S Sat.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-.18*	.35***
9. STREV2S	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-.34***
10. WBT	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
M	24.15	22.03	22.19	22.33	19.25	19.01	22.70	33.73	12.50	57.40
SD	3.18	2.70	5.13	3.98	4.33	4.84	11.80	3.76	7.43	11.27

Note. N = 127 to 130. SSQ = Social Support Questionnaire; STREV2S = stressfulness of life events; WBT = Well-being total.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

The decision to use subjective appraisal of the social support network was supported by the correlation of personality to interpersonal measures. SSQ-S Number and SSQ-S Satisfaction were both positively correlated to QRI Person A Support with $r = .24$, $p < .01$, and $r = .38$, $p < .001$, respectively. These correlations reveal consistency in the personality construct and the interpersonal dimensions when respondents are asked to give their perceptions of their support network.

The association of perceptions of stressful events with personality measures and with interpersonal measures were consistent with logic. As shown in Table 2, there was a significant negative relationship between sense of support (SSQ-S N) and perception of stressfulness of life events (STREV2S; $r = -.20$, $p < .01$). Similarly there was a negative relationship between satisfaction with social support (SSQ-S S) and STREV2S ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$). While no causality can be implied, higher measures of perceived availability of support were related to lower levels of perceptions about how stressful those life events are.

Interpersonal characteristics correlated in a similarly logical way with perceived stressfulness of events without always reaching statistical significance. Two results worth note are the correlation of person A and person B on the QRI support dimension with STREV2S. Both relationships were

negative (person A, $r = -.10$, ns; person B, $r = -.16$, $p < .05$), suggesting that lower levels of support were associated with higher reports of perceived stressfulness.

One further interesting piece of the relationship between interpersonal characteristics and STREV2S can be seen in person A and B conflict scores ($r = .18$, $p < .05$; $r = .20$, $p < .05$). This positive correlation reveals that higher conflict in relationships is associated with higher report of the stressfulness of life events. With the results from both the support dimension and the conflict dimension of interpersonal relationships, it can be posited that perhaps the lack of support or the increase in conflict themselves add to the stressfulness respondents report in things that happen in their lives.

Contributions to Well-being

Hierarchical multiple regression equations were computed to evaluate the contributions of the independent variables personality, interpersonal characteristics, and situation to well-being (see Table 3). Demographic variables such as the age of respondent, the age of children in the family, the husband's rank (officer or enlisted), and years married were considered first. They made no significant contribution to the prediction of well-being.

Table 3
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Personality,
Interpersonal, and Situational Variables Contributing to
Army Wives' Well-being.

Independent variable	$\underline{r}^2_{\text{change}}$	$\underline{F}_{\text{change}}$	β	$\underline{r}^2_{\text{sempartial}}$
$\underline{N} = 127$				
Steps 1-6: Demographics				
Husband's rank			-.01	
Children (age 0-6)			-.07	
Children (18+)			-.03	
Children (7-17)			-.11	
Age			.31	
Yrs. married			-.16	
Total steps 1-6	.04	0.85		.04
Step 7: Personality				
SSQ-S Number	.11	14.61***	.33	.15
Step 8: Interpersonal				
QRI A+B support	.10	15.93***	.37	.25
Step 9: Situation				
Months	.00	0.03	.02	.25
$\underline{R}^2_{\text{Total}} = .25, \underline{F}(9,117) = 4.27***$				

Note. SSQ-S = Social Support Questionnaire-Short Form;
QRI = Quality of Relationships Inventory; Months = months at
current duty station.

*** $p < .001$.

After personality factors and interpersonal characteristics were entered into the hierarchical equation, 25% of the variance in well-being was explained. Each added significantly to the variance in well-being with personality (SSQ-S Number), $\underline{F}(7,119) = 14.61, p < .001$, and interpersonal characteristics (QRI A+B SPT), $\underline{F}(8,118) =$

15.93, $p < .001$. The final independent variable, situation (Months), was entered at Step 9 and made no further contribution to the model accounting for variance in well-being.

A second multiple hierarchical equation was computed to evaluate other situational factors beyond the proposed primary independent variable, months at current duty station. It was computed separately because it substantially changes the number of subjects evaluated in the equation (see Table 4). In the first analysis $N = 127$, while in the second $N = 83$. The reason for this difference is the factor, relocation stress. This situational factor was computed from the RSI (questions 1 and 2) pertaining to relocating in the past year. Only those Army wives who indicated yes to this situation ($N = 85$) were considered for the analysis involving relocation stress.

The second regression equation considering additional situational factors and their contribution to Army wives' well-being was similar to the first through the entry of months at current duty station as the independent variable. The total amount of variance accounted for with demographic information, personality, and interpersonal characteristics was 26%, $F(8,74) = 12.47$, $p < .001$. The independent variable of situation as months did not add significantly to the variance in well-being.

Table 4
Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Personality,
Interpersonal, and Additional Situational Factors
Contributing to Recently Relocated Army Wives' Well-being.

Independent variable	$\underline{r}^2_{\text{change}}$	$\underline{F}_{\text{change}}$	β	$\underline{r}^2_{\text{semipartial}}$
<hr/> N=83				
Steps 1-6: Demographics				
Husband's rank			.01	
Children (18+)			-.06	
Children (7-17)			-.13	
Children (age 0-6)			-.07	
Age			.23	
Yrs. married			-.11	
Total steps 1-6	.02	0.35		.02
Step 7: Personality				
SSQ-S Number	.11	9.23***	.35	.13
Step 8: Interpersonal				
QRI A+B support	.13	12.47***	.41	.26
Step 9: Situation				
Months	.01	0.82	-.11	.27
Step 10-11: Relocation				
Moves made			-.06	
Relocation stress			-.24	
Total steps 10-11	.05	2.81		.32
Step 12: Distance				
How far	.07	7.57**	-.28	.39
Step 13-14: Life events				
Life events			.49	
Stressfulness			-.51	
Total steps 13-14	.05	3.05		.44
<hr/> $\underline{R}^2_{\text{Total}} = .44, \underline{F}(14, 68) = 3.77***$ <hr/>				

Note. SSQ-S = Social Support Questionnaire-Short Form;
QRI = Quality of Relationships Inventory; Moves made =
number of moves made with husband's Army career; Relocation
stress = perceived stress (questions 1-2) Relocation Stress
Index(RSI); How far = distance respondent lives from home;
Life events = total life events from RSI; Stressfulness =
perceived stressfulness score (questions 1-21, no 13) RSI.
p < .01, *p < .001.

After the entry of months, new factors such as moves made and relocation stress (Steps 10-11) did not add significant change to well-being. This was surprising considering the strength of the negative correlation between relocation stress and well-being, $r = -.30$, $p < .001$. Apparently there is a logical association between the two variables that simply does not reach significant levels.

The next step (Distance), how far Army wives live from home, did add further to the variance $F(12,70) = 7.57$, $p < .01$. This suggests that situational factors do, in fact, contribute to well-being just not quite in the manner proposed.

The final situational factors, life events that occurred in the past year and their perceived stressfulness (Steps 13-14), approached significance and added 5% to the prediction of variance in well-being. Overall the independent variables of personality, interpersonal, and various situational factors contributed 44% of the variance in well-being, $F(14,68) = 3.77$, $p < .001$. This observation lends support to the hypothesis of the dynamics of the triadic hypothesis as it relates to an Army wife population.

Discussion

The results reported here provide partial support for the hypotheses of this study. Specifically, personality and interpersonal measures did contribute separately and significantly to Army wives well-being. The element of situation did add further descriptive power to the model explaining well-being, although it was not exactly in the manner anticipated.

The differences in contributions to well-being that were observed in this study, as opposed to the differences expected, may be related to the specificity with which the situation was measured. Research surrounding the prediction of adjustment with consideration to the types of stressors remains mixed about the emphasis placed on current hassles or life events. The relationship between life event scores and health outcomes can be weak (DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman & Lazarus, 1982). Research surrounding many adjustment measures distinguish between the larger elements of life events as opposed to hassles that predict the here-and-now pressures of living (Chamberlain & Zika, 1992; Suh et al., 1996).

Further research with Army wives and their experiences with the stressors of Army life can benefit from the distinctions between what large events occurred and what

trickle down effects those events had. With this approach, rather than a simple endorsement of, "Yes, I moved this year," a respondent would be given the opportunity to describe the variety of effects that event had. In a military application, perhaps there were difficulties with finances to re-stock the transplanted household. Perhaps children had a challenging time meeting new friends. Perhaps the wife experienced difficulty finding anyone with whom she had anything in common. The RSI or any index measuring the experience of Army life could benefit by providing for the everyday hassles that emerge related to the larger life event transitions that occur.

Beyond weaknesses noted in the gathering of information on the situation of Army wives, one further limitation appears with the method in which the Quality of Relationships Inventory was used. In order to gain a clearer picture of the intricacies of relationship of the respondent with Person A and Person B, this research could have benefited from identifying those supportive members of the network.

This study did support the first hypothesis with important information about the ways in which Army wives' personality, ways of getting along with others, and situation all add to their overall well-being. By far, the largest contributors to well-being were personality and

interpersonal characteristics explaining approximately equal amounts of the variance and totaling 25% of the variance with demographics considered. How these Army wives perceive the quality and supportiveness of their support networks are clearly important elements to their well-being.

When the situation of relocation was operationalized as months at current duty station, it did not contribute at all to the variance in well-being. Number of moves made related to husband's Army career and the stressfulness of a recent move also did not add significantly to the variance in well-being. At this level, these findings support previous research that relocation does not affect adjustment, and they also lend credence to the notion that there could be such a thing as chronic mobility syndrome (Marchant & Medway, 1987). Perhaps wives really do grow accustomed to moving whether it is because of their own personal coping mechanisms or because of assistance provided by the Army throughout the process of relocation.

Further analysis of the regression results could benefit from a more intense scrutiny of relocation factors. Step 10-11 involving other relocation variables beyond time at current duty station, suggest that the perceived stress of relocation had a strong relationship with well-being, $r = -.30$, $p < .01$ (see Appendix H) although it did not reach significance in the regression equation. This suggests that

that stressfulness of a move has some relationship with well-being, and opens a path for future research. Elements such as this add new information to the applicability of the triadic hypothesis of social support and lend further credence to the importance of including specific situational factors. It also leaves open the possibility that relocation, in its myriad influences, does actually present a stressful transition for Army wives.

It is possible that relocation is not a significant stressor to some Army wives. It is also possible that the respondents in this study who were attending spouse group activities were relatively nonplused by the transition. The effort that these respondents were making to attend social functions with other Army wives may have stemmed from a recognition of the stressors inherent to their Army lifestyles. They may have found attendance at support group activities an addition to their coping resources. Similar to Rosen & Moghadam's (1988, 1990) research, they may have found that peer support, specifically perceived instrumental support from other unit wives, was beneficial for dealing with the stressors of Army life.

With these coping skills in mind, it could be that the group from which this study received responses is significantly different from other wives. Respondents were drawn from battalion and company level coffees and ACS

events possibly influencing the nature of the sample from the start in terms of the supportive atmosphere they experienced. Future research exploring the effects of relocation on the well-being of Army wives could discern differences of wives who attend support related functions and those who do not.

Although the recency of a move did not contribute to the outcome of well-being, other situational factors were important. In this way, support for the second hypothesis emerged in ways divergent from the original statement. The emergence of additional factors of situation adding to personality and interpersonal characteristics in the variance of well-being supports the three elements of the triadic hypothesis of social support (Sarason, I. G. et al., 1992). This study confirms previous research (Pierce et al., 1991, 1997) by confirming the contribution of personality and interpersonal characteristics to well-being. It also extends the same research through its examination of the dynamics of situation which influence the process of social support.

The factor, distance from home, explaining 7% of the total variance in well-being was the strongest added situational element uncovered in this research. The components of living closer to home for an Army wife could influence her well-being in a variety of ways. Living

closer to the place she calls home may provide a general comfort level with her surroundings. There is no need to get to know the "natives" because the idiosyncrasies of those people are known.

Support services and the general way that people approach life would be familiar to her. The possibility that family and friends are closer could serve as a support for a myriad of situations. As opposed to the Army wife who is stationed far from home and must rely only on what Army services are available or what she discovers in the community, a wife near home could possibly draw on previous experience for what to expect from the community. While this factor of proximity to home may not ever be easily controlled by either Army policy or duty assignment choices, it is interesting to consider for providing assistance to those wives who are not close to home.

With the information provided from this research, it is possible to suggest support services that can alter the stressfulness of life events for Army wives. Since personality and interpersonal qualities carry such a substantial weight in the variance of well-being, it is reasonable to suggest that interventions target these areas.

Certainly the factors that the Army can influence such as increased preparedness for a move and adequate reimbursement for the cost of a move are still important

(Scarville, 1993) to the successful process or relocation. Since situation did not carry much weight in the variance of well-being, however, it seems that additional approaches are needed. What is underlined in this research is beyond what the Army as an institution can do, but rather deals with services that can be provided on an individual basis to improve quality of life for Army families.

There are actions families can take to decrease relocation strain. Personal confidence and positive attitude are recommended by Schumm et al. (1994) as ways to face relocation stress. To target these areas, intervention programs could proactively build communication skills for wives in a variety of settings to be able to reach out to their network. With enhanced abilities to draw what they need for support from others, Army wives could benefit from an improved feeling of being supported.

Such intervention efforts would meet the challenge Barrera (1986) identified as support deterioration with parallel efforts to prepare for increased strain. In the face of future stress, Army wives could draw on new skills for incorporating supportive people in their network and divert the challenges of adjustment in the face of transition and stress. This improvement in sense of support can have a multitude of positive and lasting effects.

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Point of Contact Instructions

Dear Point of Contact,

Thank you so much for agreeing to work on this research with me. I am enclosing survey packets for you to distribute to the next meeting of Army spouses you attend. The instructions on each questionnaire are fairly self-explanatory. Refer to the top of each page for specific instructions if there are questions.

Please take a minute to look through a survey packet for yourself. Take a minute to complete it, if you would, and this can be the first packet from your site. Below, are instructions for you to present as you distribute these questionnaires. Please stay as close to this presentation as possible to ensure a standardized administration from site to site.

- You are about to participate in research about social support and relocation. Monica Darcy has asked me to distribute these questionnaires to you to gather information from military wives about your experiences as you move with your husbands' careers. Monica is conducting this research to complete her dissertation in Counselor Education with Kansas State University. She is an Army spouse herself who made eight moves with her husband's career. She believes the information we gather

from these surveys will be useful for suggesting improvements to relocation services.

- The Informed Consent Agreement, page 1, is for each of you to keep, in case you have questions. Also, please remember, everyone's confidentiality will be maintained. Please rip off page 2, the Informed Consent Statement, from the survey packet, and after you have completed the questionnaires, you will place them in separate envelopes from the completed survey packet.

When you have distributed and collected these at the next meeting you attend, please return them to me in the two separate stamped envelopes I have provided. If you need more or if you have any questions, my address, phone number and email are all below. I am hoping to have these back by the end of February so I can compile the data and prepare for the defense of my dissertation before May.

Thanks again for taking time from your busy schedules to do this for me. I couldn't do it without your help.

Sincerely,

Monica G. Darcy

email: pmdarcy@ibm.net

186 Plainfield Pike

(401) 397-2502

Foster, RI 02825

Informed Consent Statement

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. I am an Army wife, myself, and as I have traveled from place to place with my husband, I have found moving to be a big challenge. When I decided on a topic for my dissertation, I came upon the idea of looking into the process of relocating and resettling as an Army family. The purpose of this survey is to explore the relationship between the challenges experienced by Army families during relocation and the presence of social support. I believe that the focus I take may provide some useful information for support services that may provide improved relocation assistance.

I appreciate the time you have taken to complete these questions. Your responses are confidential. At no time will you be identified nor will anyone other than the investigators have access to your responses. The demographic information collected will be used only for purposes of analysis. There are no potential hazards which may occur from participation in this research. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you are free to terminate your participation at any time without penalty.

I am not able to administer this survey because I currently live in Rhode Island and travel across the country would be expensive and time-consuming. I have asked several

people to help me; some friends, some colleagues, some just interested in what I would like to accomplish. Please trust them to be confidential investigators who will separate your informed consent form from your survey and then forward all materials without viewing them to me in Rhode Island. They may be able to answer your questions about this investigation, or you may contact me at the address below. If you have any further questions about your rights as a participant or the manner in which this research is conducted, you may contact Clive Fullagar, Institutional Review Board, 103 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, at (785)532-6195.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Monica G. Darcy

email: pmdarcy@ibm.net

186 Plainfield Pike

Foster, RI 02825

*****This page is for you to keep*****

Informed Consent Agreement

I agree to participate in the present study being conducted under the supervision of a faculty member of the Department of Counseling Education at Kansas State University, Dr. Fred O. Bradley. I have been informed, orally and in writing, about the procedures to be followed and about any discomforts or risks that may be involved. The investigator has offered to answer any further inquiries that I may have regarding the procedures. I understand that I am free to terminate my participation at any time without penalty or prejudice and have all data obtained from me withdrawn from the study and destroyed. I have also been told of any benefits that may result from my participation. All data will be reported as group data and no names will be used. If I have any questions about my rights as a participant or the manner in which this research is conducted, I may contact Clive Fullagar, Chair, Institutional Review Board, 103 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS, 66506, at (785)532-6195. I fully understand the above and give my consent to serve as a participant.

NAME (PLEASE PRINT)_____

SIGNATURE_____DATE_____

Detach this page from your completed survey packet and place it in a separate envelope with test administrator.

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Appendix D
Situational Context
Relocation Stress Index

What is your age?_____ How long have you been married?_____

Your spouse's rank?_____

How many children do you have?_____ What are their ages?_____

How long have you been at your current duty station?_____

How far are you stationed from the place you call home?

_____ Within a 1 hr. drive

_____ Within an 8 hr. drive

_____ Visits require more than 1 day driving or air travel

How many total moves have you made related to your husband's Army career ?_____

Below are a list of events that may occur in some families. Please check "Yes" if these occurred in your family in the past year. Then check how stressful this seemed to you.

	1	2	3	4
	Not at all	Mildly	Stressful	Extremely
	stressful	stressful		stressful

Yes, this occurred
in the past year

1. _____ You had a Permanent Change of Station (PCS) move	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

2. _____ You changed residence without a PCS move	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

3. _____ Your spouse is deployed	1	2	3	4
----------------------------------	---	---	---	---

4. _____ Your spouse was deployed	1	2	3	4
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5. _____ Army responsibilities have caused long separations	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

6. _____ You or a family member qualifies for Exceptional Family Member (EFM) treatment	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

7. ____ You or a family member were seriously ill or injured	1	2	3	4
8. ____ You became pregnant	1	2	3	4
9. ____ A close friend or relative died	1	2	3	4
10. ____ A close friend moved or you moved away from a close friend	1	2	3	4
11. ____ You gained a new family member (birth, adoption, elderly dependent...)	1	2	3	4
12. ____ A child or family member departed	1	2	3	4
13. ____ You have regularly attended Family Support Group (FSG) meetings	1	2	3	4
14. ____ You had problems finding a job	1	2	3	4
15. ____ You have a job	1	2	3	4
16. ____ Your job status has changed	1	2	3	4
17. ____ You had trouble finding adequate or affordable care for your child	1	2	3	4
18. ____ Your child experienced difficulty in school	1	2	3	4
19. ____ You have been on a family vacation	1	2	3	4
20. ____ You have had trouble getting along with friends or family	1	2	3	4

21. _____ You had trouble paying your bills	1	2	3	4
22. _____ You borrowed a large amount of money	1	2	3	4

Questions included in factors:

Relocation 1, 2.

Separation 3, 4, 5.

Health 6, 7, 8.

Change of Support 9, 10, 11, 12, 13.

Employment 14, 15, 16.

Family 17, 18, 19, 20.

Financial 21, 22.

Appendix E

Social Support Questionnaire - Short Form

Instructions: The following questions ask about people in your environment who provide you with help or support. Each question has two parts. For the first part, list all the people you know, excluding yourself, whom you can count on for help or support in the manner described. Give the person's initials, and indicate their relationship to you (see example). Do not list more than one person next to each of the numbers beneath the question.

For the second part, circle how satisfied you are with the overall support you have.

If you have had no support for a question, check the words "No one," but still rate your level of satisfaction. Do not list more than nine people per question.

Please answer all the questions as best you can. All your responses will be kept confidential.

EXAMPLE

Who do you know whom you can trust with information that could get you in trouble?

___ No one	1) PD (husband)	4) DM (colleague)	7)
	2) KM (friend)	5) WG (mother)	8)
	3) NG (father)	6)	9)

How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

1. Whom can you really count on to be dependable when you need help?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

2. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

3. Whom can you really count on to help you feel more relaxed when you are under pressure or tense?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

4. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

5. Who accepts you totally, including your worst and your best points?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

6. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

7. Whom can you really count on to care about you, regardless of what is happening to you?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

8. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

9. Whom can you really count on to help you feel better when you are feeling generally down-in-the-dumps?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

10. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

11. Whom can you count on to console you when you are very upset?

___ No one	1)	4)	7)
	2)	5)	8)
	3)	6)	9)

12. How satisfied?

6 very satisfied	5 fairly satisfied
4 a little satisfied	3 a little dissatisfied
2 fairly dissatisfied	1 very dissatisfied

Appendix F
Quality of Relationships Inventory

Please use this scale to answer the following questions regarding your relationship with two different people close to you.

1 Not at all 2 A little 3 Quite a bit 4 Very Much

1. To what extent could you turn to this person for advice about problems?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

2. How often do you need to work to avoid conflict with this person?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

3. To what extent could you count on this person for help with a problem?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

4. How upset does this person sometimes make you feel?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

5. To what extent can you count on this person to give you honest feedback, even if you might not want to hear it?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

6. How much does this person make you feel guilty?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

7. How much do you have to "give in" in this relationship?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

8. To what extent can you count on this person to help you if a family member very close to you died?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

9. How much does this person want you to change?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

10. How positive a role does this person play in your life?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

11. How significant is this relationship in your life?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

12. How close will your relationship be with this person in 10 years?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

13. How much would you miss this person if the two of you could not see or talk with each other for a month?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

14. How critical of you is this person?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

15. If you wanted to go out to do something this evening, how confident are you that this person would be willing to do something with you?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

16. How responsible do you feel for this person's well-being?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

17. How much do you depend on this person?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

18.To what extent can you count on this person to listen to you when you are very angry at someone else?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

19.How much would you like this person to change?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

20.How angry does this person make you feel?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

21.How much do you argue with this person?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

22.To what extent can you really count on this person to distract you from worries when you feel under stress?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

23.How often does this person make you feel angry?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

24.How often does this person try to control or influence your life?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

25.How much more do you give than you get from this relationship?

Person A; 1 2 3 4 Person B; 1 2 3 4

Support Questions: (7) 1, 3, 5, 8, 15, 18, 22

Conflict Questions: (12) 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 14, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25

Depth Questions: (6) 10, 11, 12, 13, 16, 17

Appendix G

Mental Health Inventory - Psychological Well-Being Scale

THESE NEXT QUESTIONS ARE ABOUT HOW YOU FEEL, AND HOW THINGS HAVE BEEN FOR YOU MOSTLY WITHIN THE PAST MONTH. FOR EACH QUESTION, PLEASE CIRCLE A NUMBER FOR THE ONE ANSWER THAT COMES CLOSEST TO THE WAY YOU HAVE BEEN FEELING.

1. How happy, satisfied, or pleased have you been with your personal life during the past month?

(circle one)

Extremely happy, could not have been more	
Satisfied or pleased.	1
Very happy most of the time.	2
Generally satisfied, pleased.	3
Sometimes fairly satisfied, sometimes fairly unhappy. .4	
Generally dissatisfied, unhappy.	5
Very dissatisfied, unhappy most of the time.	6

2. During the past month, how much of the time have you felt that the future looks hopeful and promising?

(circle one)

All of the time	1
Most of the time.	2
A good bit of the time.	3
Some of the time.. . . .	4
A little of the time.	5
None of the time.	6

3. How much of the time, during the past month, has your daily life been full of things that were interesting to you?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.	2
A good bit of the time.	3
Some of the time.	4
A little of the time.	5
None of the time.	6

4. How much of the time, during the past month, did you feel relaxed and free of tension?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.	2
A good bit of the time.	3
Some of the time.	4
A little of the time.	5
None of the time.	6

5. During the past month, how much of the time have you generally enjoyed the things you do?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.	2
A good bit of the me.	3
Some of the time.	4
A little of the time.	5
None of the time.	6

6. During the past month, how much of the time have you felt loved and wanted?

(circle one)

All of the time. 1
 Most of the time. 2
 A good bit of the time. 3
 Some of the time. 4
 A little of the time. 5
 None of the time. 6

7. When you got up in the morning, this past month, about how often did you expect to have an interesting day?

(circle one)

Always. 1
 Very often. 2
 Fairly often. 3
 Sometimes. 4
 Almost never. 5
 Never. 6

8. How much of the time, during the past month, have you felt calm and peaceful?

(circle one)

All of the time. 1
 Most of the time. 2
 A good bit of the time. 3
 Some of the time. 4
 A little of the time. 5
 None of the time. 6

9. How much of the time, during the past month, were you able to relax without difficulty?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.2
A good bit of the time.3
Some of the time.4
A little of the time.5
None of the time.6

10. During the past month, how much of the time did you feel that your love relationships, loving and being loved, were full and complete?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.2
A good bit of the time.3
Some of the time.4
A little of the time.5
None of the time.6

11. During the past month, how much of the time has living been a wonderful adventure for you?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.2
A good bit of the time.3
Some of the time.4
A little of the time.5
None of the time.6

12. How much of the time, during the past month, have you felt cheerful, light-hearted?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.2
A good bit of the time.3
Some of the time.4
A little of the time.5
None of the time.6

13. During the past month, how much of the time were you a happy person?

(circle one)

All of the time.	1
Most of the time.2
A good bit of the time.3
Some of the time.4
A little of the time.5
None of the time.6

14. How often, during the past month, have you been waking up feeling fresh and rested?

(circle one)

Always, every day.	1
Almost every day.2
Most days.3
Some days, but usually not.4
Hardly ever.5
Never wake up feeling rested.6

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH. I APPRECIATE YOUR TIME AND INPUT.

Appendix H
Table 4 Appended Correlation Coefficients

	WBT	AGE	AGES1	AGES2	AGES3	MARRIED	SUBGROUP	SSQN	QRIABSPT	MONTHS	MOVESMAD	RELS1	HOWFAR	STREV2	STREV2S
WBT	1.000 .257	.073 .257	-.043 .349	-.044 .348	-.017 .441	-.001 .495	-.013 .454	.288 .004	.432 .000	-.100 .185	-.034 .382	-.304 .003	-.326 .001	-.055 .312	-.236 .016
AGE	.073 .257	1.000	-.222 .022	.504 .000	.343 .001	.771 .000	-.363 .000	.013 .452	-.258 .009	-.160 .074	.674 .000	-.097 .191	.049 .329	-.208 .030	-.180 .052
AGES1	-.043 .349	-.222 .022	1.000	-.308 .002	-.174 .058	-.283 .005	-.133 .115	.060 .296	-.013 .455	.024 .415	-.090 .209	.147 .092	.242 .014	-.014 .451	-.031 .391
AGES2	-.044 .348	.504 .000	-.308 .002	1.000	-.010 .464	.476 .000	-.175 .057	-.012 .457	-.173 .059	-.217 .025	.453 .000	-.119 .142	-.062 .288	-.119 .142	-.205 .032
AGES3	-.017 .441	.343 .001	-.174 .058	-.010 .464	1.000	.428 .000	.033 .383	.167 .065	-.057 .304	.022 .423	.390 .000	-.084 .226	.075 .249	-.061 .292	-.073 .257
MARRIED	-.001 .495	.771 .000	-.283 .005	.476 .000	.428 .000	1.000	-.283 .005	.009 .467	-.227 .019	-.314 .002	.810 .000	-.068 .271	.017 .438	-.208 .030	-.242 .014
SUBGROUP	-.013 .454	-.363 .000	-.133 .115	-.175 .057	.033 .383	-.283 .005	1.000	-.277 .006	.050 .328	.402 .000	-.536 .000	-.046 .340	-.158 .077	.277 .006	.272 .006
SSQN	.288 .004	.013 .452	.060 .296	-.012 .457	.167 .065	.009 .467	-.277 .006	1.000	.401 .000	-.183 .049	.148 .090	-.071 .263	.017 .438	-.048 .334	-.176 .056
QRIABSPT	.432 .000	-.258 .009	-.013 .455	-.173 .059	-.057 .304	-.227 .019	.050 .328	.401 .000	1.000	-.033 .382	-.192 .041	-.153 .084	-.089 .212	-.092 .204	-.199 .036
MONTHS	-.100 .185	-.160 .074	.024 .415	-.217 .025	.022 .423	-.314 .002	.402 .000	-.183 .049	-.033 .382	1.000	-.375 .000	-.064 .283	.141 .102	.460 .000	.515 .000
MOVESMAD	-.034 .382	.674 .000	-.090 .209	.453 .000	.390 .000	.810 .000	-.536 .000	.148 .090	-.192 .041	-.375 .000	1.000	.003 .488	.129 .123	-.196 .038	-.260 .009
RELS1	-.304 .003	-.097 .191	.147 .092	-.119 .142	-.084 .226	-.068 .271	-.046 .340	-.071 .263	-.153 .084	-.064 .283	.003 .488	1.000	.136 .110	.095 .197	.223 .021
HOWFAR	-.326 .001	.049 .329	.242 .014	-.062 .288	.075 .249	.017 .438	-.158 .077	.017 .438	-.089 .212	.141 .102	.129 .123	.136 .110	1.000	.063 .286	.128 .125
STREV2	-.055 .312	-.208 .030	-.014 .451	-.119 .142	-.061 .292	-.208 .030	.277 .006	-.048 .334	-.092 .204	.460 .000	-.196 .038	.095 .197	.063 .286	1.000	.866 .000
STREV2S	-.236 .016	-.180 .052	-.031 .391	-.205 .032	-.073 .257	-.242 .014	.272 .006	-.176 .056	-.199 .036	.515 .000	-.260 .009	.223 .021	.128 .125	.866 .000	1.000